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CONSTITUTION OF THE NAVY LEAGUE.

1. This Association shall be called "THE NAVY LEAGUE." Its purpose shall be to secure as the primary object of the National Policy, "The Command of the Sea."

2. The general aims of the Navy League shall be—

(a) To spread information, showing the vital importance to the British Empire of the maintenance of Naval supremacy upon which depend its trade, empire, and national existence.

(b) To call attention to the enormous demands which war would make upon the Navy, and to such measures as may be requisite to secure adequate preparation for the maritime defence of the Empire.

(c) To urge these matters on public men, and, in particular, upon candidates for Parliament.

(d) The practical training of lads for the sea.

3. The League shall be absolutely distinct from all **party** politics.

4. All persons approving of its aims and contributing to its funds, according to the following rates of subscription, shall be Vice-Presidents, Fellows, or Members of the League, as the case may be, viz. :—

Vice-Presidents	£5	0	0	annually
Do. for life	25	0	0	
Fellows (Ladies and Gentlemen)	1	1	0	annually
Do. do. for life	10	10	0	
Members, with publications post free, not less than	0	5	0	annually
Members	0	1	0	annually

5. The League shall be under the direction of a President, a Grand Council, and Executive Committee.

6. The Executive Committee to be composed of fourteen members (including the Chairman and Vice-Chairman), of whom four shall be women, and shall be elected by the Grand Council annually.

7. Branches of the League may be formed in the United Kingdom or in any of the Colonies or Dependencies under a Minute of the Executive Committee.*

*NOTE.—The "Constitution" for the Branches of the League shall be the foregoing, except that where the word "League" appears therein the words "Branch of the League" should be substituted.

BRITAIN ON AND BEYOND THE SEA

BEING A HANDBOOK TO THE

NAVY LEAGUE MAP OF THE WORLD

BY

CECIL H. CROFTS, M.A.

ASSISTANT MASTER AT TONBRIDGE SCHOOL

WITH PREFACES BY

ADMIRAL THE HON. SIR E. R. FREMANTLE, G.C.B., C.M.G.

THE RIGHT HON. THE EARL OF MEATH, P.C., K.P.

FIELD-MARSHAL THE RIGHT HON. EARL ROBERTS, V.C., K.G., ETC.

AND THE

HON. SIR WILLIAM HALL-JONES, K.C.M.G., High Commissioner
for New Zealand

SIXTH EDITION, 1911



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AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

THIS little book is dedicated to the British Schoolboy, and is intended as a Handbook to the Navy League Map of the World. It does not profess to be original, but the greatest care has been taken to ensure accuracy by consulting all the available authorities on the subject. The author's special acknowledgments are due to Mr Hamilton Williams, Captain Mahan, Rear-Admiral S. Eardley Wilmot, R.N., Dr T. Miller Maguire, M.A., F.R.Hist.S., W. J. N. Griffith, B.A., and H. S. Vere Hodge, B.A., for much kind assistance. For the descriptions of the Empire, standard books of reference have been consulted.

The author wishes to draw attention to the List of Naval Engagements printed on the top of the Map. These engagements are numbered and dated. The corresponding number will be found at that spot on the Map where the fight took place, and the description of the fight in the text of Chapter I. is shown by the number, name, and date of the engagement printed in a marginal inset.

In using the Index this system of finding the account of a given subject by means of its date should also be used.

"It is on our Navy, under the good Providence of God, that our Wealth, Prosperity and Peace depend."—ARTICLES OF WAR.

P R E F A C E

BY

ADMIRAL THE HON. SIR E. R. FREMANTLE, G.C.B., C.M.G.,
REAR-ADMIRAL OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

I HAVE been asked to write a Preface to the Fourth Edition of Mr Crofts' admirable Handbook to the Navy League Map of the World, though I am well aware that it needs no commendation on my part.

Dedicated, as is also the large Wall Map itself, to the Children of the British Empire, the Handbook is necessarily elementary; it does not pretend to be a naval history, but is a skilfully compiled epitome of the most important naval operations extending over a period of 300 years. During the greater portion of that period—that is, from 1588-1805, or “From Howard to Nelson”—the Navy of England was engaged in an almost unbroken series of actions, small or great, as can be seen from the dates at the top of the Map which forms the frontispiece of the book. It was by these actions that our Empire was won, for it was by them that our command of the sea was secured, and it is on that command of the sea that we depend for security from attack.

In Henry Newbolt's words, "For England was England, and a mighty brood she bore."

Since 1805—that is, for 100 years—we have been developing our Empire, our trade and commerce, in comparatively peaceful rivalry with other nations, but, dependent as we are on Sea Power, we must take care that the Empire won for us by the devotion of our ancestors is kept undiminished and unsullied by us, their descendants.

It is in no Jingo spirit that the Navy League impresses on the young the importance of the maintenance of this rich inheritance. Jealous nations are around us ready to take our place if we relax our efforts. Are we perhaps unworthy? Have we done, are we doing, nothing to justify our position?

Can we not point to the long watches, measured by years, on both coasts of Africa in the suppression of the slave trade, to the sacrifices made in clearing the seas of pirates from Algiers to China, to the charting of the seas for the benefit of mariners of every flag by our naval surveyors, to our generous opening of ports to international trade, to hospitality to all nations and languages shown under the British Flag?

Have we not some right to claim moral assent for calling to remembrance the deeds of our naval heroes, who have

" Left their sons a hope of fame,
They, too, shall rather die than shame "?

May we not endeavour to keep alive that spark of patriotic self-sacrifice without which a nation is doomed to decay and ultimate annihilation.

E. R. FREMANTLE.

P R E F A C E

BY

THE RIGHT HON. THE EARL OF MEATH, P.C., K.P.

FROM 1588 until 1805—that is, for over 200 years—England was engaged in almost continuous naval warfare, resulting in the latter year—that of Trafalgar—in the attainment at length of practically undisputed command of the high seas. From that date until the present year—that is, for over 100 years—her sea supremacy has not been challenged. Several generations have therefore been born and have passed away without a knowledge of the meaning of naval warfare, until a time has arrived when it is difficult for a Briton to realise that the peace and prosperity which he enjoys are entirely due to the sea supremacy established by the valour of his forefathers. He is, as a rule, badly instructed in the history of the gallant deeds which brought about the state of internal peace which has become to him so much a matter of course that he does not realise the amount of life, blood, suffering, and treasure sacrificed by his ancestors in the interests of the island home which was theirs and is his. That this naval supremacy may some day be challenged by a foreign Power

or by Powers combined, unless he exerts himself to maintain an overwhelmingly strong Navy, is an idea which does not naturally present itself to his intelligence, and he is apt to consider as self-interested alarmists those who endeavour to point out to him the rapid growth within recent years of certain foreign navies.

The appearance, therefore, of a revised edition of the excellent Handbook to the Navy League Map, from the pen of Cecil H. Crofts, M.A., is a matter upon which your readers may be congratulated. This little publication contains a reduced copy of the large Wall Map published by the Navy League. On it are marked the sites of all the principal naval battles in which the Fleets of England have been engaged; and the numbers on the Map correspond with numbers in the body of the Handbook, against which are published pithy, interesting accounts of the principal features of the actions themselves.

The little work should be in the hands of every young Briton, and no school should be considered properly equipped which has not the full-sized Navy League Wall Map of the Empire hanging on the walls within easy view of the scholars.

MEATH.

P R E F A C E

BY

THE RIGHT HON. EARL ROBERTS, FIELD-MARSHAL,
P.C., K.P., G.C.B., G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., V.C., K.G., D.C.L., LL.D.

I AM very glad that a Sixth Edition of the Handbook to the Navy League Map is to be issued, and I gladly accede to the request of Mr Crofts to write a few lines of Preface to it.

The fact that there is so good a demand for the book shows that the British Schoolboy, for whom it is intended, likes it, and I consider this a most hopeful sign, for it is very necessary that the rising generation should appreciate the importance of the problem of the defence not only of the Empire, but of our own shores.

Great Britain has for so many years now held the supremacy of the seas that the idea that this should ever be challenged has hardly entered into the head of the ordinary citizen. We have gone on adding thousands of miles of territory to the area of the Empire, and millions of souls to its population. We have been content to accept these additions as our right without in any way considering how other nations regard this expansion, and without increasing our power of defence in proportion to our increasing responsibilities. We have endeavoured up to now, with varying success, to keep up our Navy to the traditional two-power standard, but the advent of a new and infinitely more powerful type of battleship, which has rendered more or less obsolete all that had been

built before, is putting other nations on an equality with us, for it means that we have to forego all the advantage of our earlier efforts and to set about building up our Fleets anew. Other countries are starting on equal terms with us, and we must work as we have never worked before to add to our Navy if we are to maintain that supremacy at sea which is vital to our very existence. Our predominance is becoming less and less every year, other nations are increasing the number of these new battleships in larger proportion than we are. While we have also to recognise the possibility that a great land power may, by the use of its land forces, acquire territories which would enable it still further to expand a navy, already formidable in number, training, and reserve, and would thereby acquire resources—geographical and financial—which would automatically destroy the balance of power in Europe, which it has always been our policy to maintain, directly endanger our naval supremacy, and threaten the safety of our shores.

To guard against these dangers the Navy must not only be kept up to the two-power standard, but it must be given full strategical freedom by the establishment of a home defence army. But however strong we make the Navy, it is not sufficient to trust to it alone to secure the safety of the country and to guard our overseas possessions, an adequate foreign service army must also be provided. It is the duty, therefore, of everyone who understands how completely the commercial prosperity of this country depends on our ability to keep our hold on India and our Colonies to point out this truth to the boys who will have to take up the burden of Imperial responsibility that their fathers bore, and to explain to them that while the defence of these places must fall mainly on the army our very existence depends upon our being supreme at sea.

ROBERTS.

P R E F A C E

BY

THE HON. SIR WILLIAM HALL-JONES, K.C.M.G.,
HIGH COMMISSIONER FOR NEW ZEALAND.

THIS little Handbook, which describes so well the origin and development of the British Empire, should be read by every boy, every girl, aye, and by every man and woman, of our race.

We do not sufficiently realise that the greatness of our Empire is of comparatively modern growth ; therefore, while we look back with pride upon the heroism and daring of our sailors and the courage and enterprise of the early settlers of Britain's Colonies, we must not forget that nations which formerly held command of the seas are now numbered among the minor powers of the world. Our endeavour should be to avoid the causes which contributed to their decline.

Happily the component parts of our Empire are absolutely loyal to our beloved Sovereign and to their kith and kin across the seas. The one time "Colonies" are developing into vigorous young nations which promise to exceed in importance many of the nations of the Old World.

While we think of the glorious past, with all its troubles, trials and anxieties, as well as of the inestimable benefits conferred upon the human race throughout the world, we must bear in mind that the future of the British people is largely in the hands of the men and women of to-day.

I am sure that we all desire to see our great Empire not only maintaining its present proud position, but, as the years roll on, with each part working in unison, becoming an even greater Empire, which, from its very magnitude, will ensure peace and happiness to all the people of the earth.

WILLIAM HALL-JONES.

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CHAPTER I.

SKETCH OF NAVAL HISTORY
1588-1911

CHAPTER I.

SKETCH OF NAVAL HISTORY. 1588=1911.

“Lord God of Hosts be with us yet,
Lest we forget—lest we forget!”

PERIOD I.

THE RIVALRY WITH SPAIN AND PORTUGAL

WHEN Elizabeth ascended the throne of England in 1558 the English Navy was small and inefficient. Indeed, the Royal Navy, considered apart from privately owned ships, can hardly be said to have existed at all. It is true that at different periods of English History previous to the accession of the great Tudor Queen there had been collected for some definite object a numerous and powerful Fleet, and under certain of our kings, notably Richard I., Edward III.,¹ Henry V., Henry VII., and Henry VIII., there had been a perception of the truth of Alfred's doctrine that our shores were best protected from our enemies by meeting the invaders before they landed. But the work of establishing a permanent Royal Fleet, so ably started by the last of the Henrys, was feebly maintained under Edward VI. and Mary, so that Elizabeth found on her accession a force that was both small and inefficient. Nor during the early part of her reign was anything done to improve it; indeed, after she had been ten years on the throne the Navy had sunk to its lowest ebb. The Crown had but seven revenue cruisers in commission, the largest displacing only 120 tons, and eight merchant brigs altered for fighting purposes. The big ships were in harbour

¹ Battle of Sluys, 1340.

partially dismantled ; of artillery fit for sea service there was none. The merchant navy engaged in lawful commerce did not exceed 50,000 tons. Spain, on the other hand, was at this time the strongest Power in the world, owing her importance to her enormous territories in America. In Europe, though her power in the Netherlands was on the wane, she had acquired Portugal, and with that acquisition she had obtained a real sea-going war fleet of twelve galleons, which was to form the nucleus of a great naval force. For the first twenty-six years of the Queen's reign England and Spain were officially at peace, but though Philip and Elizabeth desired this peace to last, it was evident to both that war was inevitable sooner or later, and though each kept an ambassador at the Court of the other, still each tried to do the other as much harm as possible by acts of covert hostility. This state of affairs is an example of the antagonism of two great principles of which two nations happen to be the champions. Spain and England might be at peace ; Romanism and Protestantism were at deadly war. Crimes of all sorts were committed in defence either of the Catholic faith or the Protestant cause ; both sides acted unscrupulously in the defence of their own opinions. In this work Elizabeth had able assistants in the mariners of the south-west of England ; the men of Devon and Cornwall were always ready for adventure. They were, however, not always careful to consider whether they satisfied this spirit of adventure, handed down to them by their forefathers, by voyages of legitimate commerce or by the exploits of illegitimate piracy. Merchant companies opened trade with Russia and the Levant ; adventurous sea captains went to Guinea and elsewhere for gold, and Elizabeth loved to have it so. She liked daring and adventure, and she liked the men who would do the work. They might be called traders, privateers, or pirates ; the name did not signify. But whether genuine traders, or bold buccaneers, there is no doubt that they were mariners who had no rivals in seamanship.

Such men as these naturally cared little enough whether the political relations between Spain and England were formally ruptured or not ; it was sufficient for them that the discovery of the New World opened up fields for trade, and that Spanish ships were valuable prizes if only they could be secured. Elizabeth secretly encouraged these piratical adventurers, though for reasons of state she thought it best occasionally to rebuke them. The genius of adventure tempted men of the

highest birth into the rovers' ranks. Privateering became the special occupation of these honourable gentlemen who could serve God, their country, and themselves by fighting the Catholics. The names of some of this hardy band are well known. Sir Hugh Willoughby, one of the earliest of these adventurers, was an intrepid explorer who perished in the White Sea in 1554. Martin Frobisher braved the inclement shores of Labrador and investigated the coasts of Newfoundland. John Davis attempted to force the North-West Passage, and is still remembered by the Straits that bear his name. Sir John Hawkins opened up trade with the West Indies. Sir Humphrey Gilbert and many others met their death in their ships on the open sea. All these men, by their courage and adventurous spirit, helped to found a race of seamen that no other nation could equal. But the name of Sir Francis Drake stands above these heroes, and takes the first place in our minds as the type of the sixteenth century mariner.

After many adventurous voyages, first under Hawkins, and then on his own account, Drake conceived the idea of rounding South America and of circumnavigating the globe. He set out on this expedition in 1577, and, passing through the Straits of Magellan, reached the Pacific Ocean. Cruising in that vast expanse he burnt and plundered the rich towns of the Spanish possessions, beginning with Valparaiso, the capital of Chili, and made his way, taking what treasure he wanted wherever he could lay hands on it, to Java. Thence he sailed to the Cape of Good Hope and back to Plymouth, returning as the triumphant navigator, the first Englishman to go round the globe, laden with spoil worth nearly a million. Honoured by his Queen, and adored by his fellow-countrymen, he again set forth to "sing the King of Spain's beard," no longer a mere private adventurer but an English Admiral backed up by Royal authority.

Meantime Philip had been making preparations for an invasion of England. Mary Stuart, the head of Roman Catholicism in the British Isles, had, at her death, nominated a daughter of Philip as her heiress. Philip accepted this legacy for himself, and from that moment the two nations were really at war.

In April 1587 Drake proceeded to the Spanish coast in all haste, and swept down upon Cadiz, where Philip's chief ships were assembled. In spite of Spanish forts he burst

into the harbour, destroying 150 ships and vast quantities of stores. Then, sailing north, he threatened to repeat his exploits at Lisbon, but was prevented by orders from home. Had he been allowed to follow his own inclinations it is questionable if Spain could have fitted out the Fleet that sailed to conquer England in the following year.

Philip, however, continued his preparations, being urged on by the great Spanish Admiral, Santa Cruz, to whom the idea of the Armada was really due. Drake's success caused but a temporary delay; the Spanish monarch did not abandon his schemes. In 1588 these schemes were ripe, though the death of Santa Cruz was a severe blow to Philip, who had to select a new Commander-in-Chief. An Armada, consisting of 65 great galleons, and as many other smaller ships, 30,000 men, 3000 guns, and some 500 or 600 priests to convert Protestant England, was ready to sail under command of the Duke of Medina Sidonia. Starting from Lisbon towards the end of May, the Armada anchored in the harbour of Corunna early in June, where nearly a month was spent in trying to remedy defects. Lord Charles Howard¹ was eager to visit the coast of Spain and work such havoc among the enemy's shipping that their design would again have to be postponed, but Elizabeth would not allow the attempt to be made and ordered him not to go beyond Ushant.

During these weeks the Duke of Parma, who was in the Netherlands with another 30,000 men, was expecting the arrival of the Armada in order to cross the Channel under its protection. But the English Fleet had not been idle. Two squadrons, consisting together of about 34 ships of the Royal Navy and some 160 armed merchant ships, were at sea ready to fight. One of these, under Lord Henry Seymour, was blockading the Dutch ports, in order to prevent the embarkation of the Duke of Parma's army; the other, under Lord Charles Howard of Effingham, Sir Francis Drake, Sir John Hawkins, and Frobisher, was off Plymouth. On land a large army of more or less trained fighting men was assembled in and around London, while arrangements had been made to call out every able-bodied man capable of bearing arms by a system of beacon fires.

*"Far on the deep the Spaniard saw, along each Southern shire,
Cape beyond cape, in endless range, those twinkling points of fire."*

¹ See Notes.

As soon as the Armada was sighted the English commanders, relying on the courage and seamanship of their men, prepared to meet it. But the Spanish Admiral had first to join hands with Parma, whom he expected to find at Dunkirk, so he sailed past Plymouth, making for Calais.

The English immediately followed, and attacked as they followed. With ships better manned and more easily handled than were those of the Spaniards, the English commanders could approach the Spanish Fleet at will or retire when they wanted, and as the wind was south-west they had the weather-gauge¹ of the Armada.

It was on the 21st of July—a Sunday—that the fight in the Channel began. The English were able to ply the Spanish with shot and arrows, hitting the clumsy galleons between wind and water as they rolled on the waves, and inflicting serious damage on the crowded soldiery who thronged the decks, while the Spaniards from their huge sea castles could not hit their small active enemies, who sped away on the other tack when the great sea giants tried to sail after them up the wind.

This was the kind of fighting that went on for some eight days, more or less continuously, whilst Sidonia was trying to effect a junction with Parma. And here we see two of the main causes of the ultimate defeat of the Armada. Firstly, the greater handiness of the English ships and the superior seamanship of the English sailors, and secondly, the fact that Parma made no attempt to join Sidonia when he arrived off Dunkirk.

No further proof of the first is needed beyond the words of Sidonia himself: "The enemy pursue me—they fire on me from morning to night—but they will not close with me—they are swift and we are slow."

And for the second cause, Parma, instead of being at Dunkirk ready to embark his troops should Lord Henry Seymour relax his vigilance, was miles inland at Bruges. Had he been waiting at his assigned post, prepared to make an attack on Seymour's blockading squadron with a portion of his soldiers on their transports the moment that the Armada came within fighting distance, Seymour's ships would have been caught between the two Spanish forces. Parma himself, with the main army, might then have crossed the Channel, and under cover of the Armada

¹ See Notes.

might have effected a landing. Had he done so, though it is improbable that his success would have been lasting, it is possible he might have won a battle on English soil.

After eight days, then, of this harrying warfare, the English sent fire-ships right into the mass of the shattered enemy.

Lord Howard was determined to bring matters to a crisis, and, if possible, cause a panic in his
 1 THE ARMADA, already dispirited foe by using the wind and
 1588. the tide and the moonless night whilst they were in his favour.

“The panic which he anticipated took place. They cut their cables, they hoisted sail, they crashed into each other, they ran aground in the darkness; and in the midst of the panic, the confusion of cries, the crash of the falling spars, the flapping of thrashing canvas, Drake was upon them—Drake, the Evil One, at the sound of whose name the true Catholic shuddered and crossed himself. Then it was no more a fight; it was a slaughter. Only the shameful lack of powder in our Fleet saved the whole Armada from capture or destruction, and at nightfall Howard drew off with barely a single cannon-ball left. But the next morning he and Drake were once more at work, and indeed it hardly needed their presence to make the Spaniards’ plight more pitiful. Battered, crippled, leaking, with decimated crews, with exhausted magazines, with failing provisions, and with the wind rising to a gale, they were barely holding their own off the low shores of Holland, upon which the furious breakers were clearly seen rolling, and on which the north-west wind was surely driving their wallowing hulls. But in their extremity the wind veered round to the south-west, and enabled them to clear the treacherous shore. For two more days Howard and Drake pursued them, and then, mindful of the growing storm and their own safety, turned back and barely reached the shelter of the Thames. Meanwhile the Armada, invincible no longer, fled northward. The gale grew fiercer; every day brought some fresh disaster; the battered galleys foundered in the furious North Sea; the ships scattered in all directions and rushed blindly to destruction through the gale and the mist and the rain. Some were cast away on the coast of Norway; one drove ashore on the Farøe Islands, another on the Orkneys; those who turned westwards fared almost worse. One, seeking help and safety in the Isle of Mull, was burned by the savage natives with all her crew

aboard; those who reached Catholic Ireland, hoping to find there the sympathy they so sorely needed, were terribly undeceived. Wherever they landed they were at once set upon and slain.

"Even the shelter of the harbours was denied them, and they were driven again to sea to meet a frightful death on the storm-racked coast of the south west.

"In one bay alone, we are told, lay 1100 bodies, and the like was in other places, though not to that extent.

"Between Rossan Point and Valentia Bay 8000 Spaniards are thought to have perished. Medina Sidonia himself, fortunate in the presence of the pilot, avoided the coasts of Scotland and Ireland, and at length arrived at Corunna, to which port there sadly crept in the slow lapse of days the pitiful remnant of that gallant Fleet which four months before had sailed from Lisbon with such high confidence and swelling pride."¹

Pitiful indeed was the remnant. The loss in ships was acknowledged by the Spaniards to have been sixty-three, while the loss of life was in greater proportion; for to the numbers slain in the fight must be added those who were drowned or butchered, or died of wounds, sickness, cold, and famine after the fight in the Channel was over. Few such tremendous and far-reaching catastrophes have been recorded in history as that which shattered the Armada and ended the daring schemes of Philip, for it not only saved England from becoming subject to Spain, but it raised her to a position in European estimation which she could hardly have attained without.

In the next year a counter stroke was determined on, and an expedition under the command of Sir Francis Drake and Sir John Norreys was fitted out. Portugal, then

2 a part of Philip's dominions, seemed the best
THE GROUYNE, point to strike at, and on the way thither
CORUNNA, an attack was made upon Corunna. The
1589. town was successfully taken, and a quantity
of ammunition and stores destroyed. In 1591

an expedition under Lord Thomas Howard² sailed for the Azores, with the usual object of surprising the Spanish Treasure Fleet. Lord Howard was, however, himself overtaken by a superior Spanish force, and, barely escaping capture, sailed away "with five ships of war that day."

¹ "Britain's Naval Power" (Williams).

² See Notes.

Sir Richard Grenville, in command of the *Revenge*, was left behind, and found himself cut off from the rest of the Fleet. Instead of fleeing, he resolved to fight his way single-handed through the Spanish force of fifty-three ships of war. A magnificent and heroic, but rash and one-sided, struggle ensued, and in the end the *Revenge* was captured, and Grenville, mortally wounded, was taken to the Spanish flagship to die. Five days after, with a Spanish crew on board, "the little *Revenge* herself went down by the island crags to be lost evermore in the main." This fight of the "one and the fifty-three" is one of the most famous in our history; it is the one striking episode in the years immediately following the Armada. During that period Spanish ships, especially the treasure ships, whether at sea or in port, were regarded as legitimate prey, and were continually attacked whenever they could be found. The Spanish possessions in America were also frequently the object of warlike expeditions. Within five years after the great fight in the Channel the Spanish Navy had been reconstructed, and Spain, in spite of the isolated attacks such as we have just described, was again a formidable naval power.

This was due to the procrastinating policy of Lord Burghley and the niggardliness of the Queen, both of whom refused to allow the naval commanders to follow up their victories over treasure ships or convoys by carrying the war into Spanish ports. But by 1593 the Government had become conscious of its folly, and in order to make up for lost time serious enterprises were undertaken. In the winter of 1595-96, whilst engaged in one of these adventures, Sir John Hawkins and Sir Francis Drake both lost their lives. Nor were the seaports of Spain now left unmolested. In September of the same year

an expedition under Lord Charles Howard, with whom went also Lord Thomas Howard, Sir
3 CADIZ, 1596. Walter Raleigh, and Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex, sailed into the harbour of Cadiz, where Philip was collecting ships to form a new Armada, and captured or destroyed all the new large galleons lying under the protection of the guns of the fort. The town was taken and burnt, and Lord Charles Howard was created Earl of Nottingham for that service.

During the rest of Elizabeth's reign English seamen preyed on the Spaniards when and where they could, but with the accession of James (1603) came peace. One of the Elizabethan

heroes, however, was still alive, though quite out of favour with the new monarch. Sir Walter Raleigh had been accused of participating in the conspiracy to make Arabella Stuart sovereign of England in the place of James, and on this charge had been imprisoned in the Tower. Here he occupied himself writing a history, experimenting in chemistry, and teaching the young Prince Henry the principles of seamanship. But he longed for liberty and more adventures on the seas, and the miserable state of the Royal Exchequer suggested to him an idea for obtaining his release. In 1595 he had explored the coast of Guiana, and had ascended the Orinoco River some distance from its mouth. There he had been told by the natives of a fabulous mountain of gold, but before he could explore as far inland as the district where this mine was to be found circumstances forced him to return. He therefore now appealed to the King to send him on an expedition to find the gold-mine, and the plan succeeded. After an imprisonment of twelve and a half years, he was set free in March 1616 in order to undertake this hazardous task. But he was instructed not to meddle with the Spaniards, should any have settled on the Orinoco, as James was most desirous to keep the peace. However, when the expedition arrived off the mouth

4 of the Orinoco, Raleigh sent his subordinate, GUIANA, 1617. Captain Keymis, and his own son, Walter, up the river with a force to explore inland for the mine. This detachment found some Spaniards settled at San Thomé and, contrary to the King's express orders, stormed and took it, but found no gold. It is probable that the force which resisted the English detachment had been sent by the Spanish Court, which had been surreptitiously informed by James of Raleigh's expedition. They began the fighting, in which Raleigh's son was killed.

Raleigh, not wishing to return empty-handed, desired to attack a Spanish treasure ship, but owing to his captain's refusal to disobey the King's orders he was forced to return in disgrace, having accomplished nothing. On landing, he was arrested and imprisoned again in the Tower, where he was executed towards the end of 1618, James sacrificing him in order to keep on peaceable terms with Spain. His death marks the end of the heroic age; with him passes away the era of the early architects of empire, and the builders begin their long and tedious task of erecting the fabric. Before

his death, however, the political relations with Spain were already strained, and in 1624 the hostility to that country was at its height.

An attempt was made to invade the Spanish possessions in Germany and Holland, but failed, owing partly to the mismanagement of Count Mansfield, who was in charge of the expedition. After this failure all the resources

5 of the Court were devoted to fitting out a Fleet,
 CADIZ, 1625. whose object was to sack Cadiz and capture the Spanish treasure ships. The English Fleet was however, ill-found and badly victualled; its leader, Viscount Wimbledon, was inexperienced, and the men unwilling to fight. The expedition was a failure, as was only to be expected, and the Fleet returned empty-handed.

Ever since the Armada the rising importance of English trade had greatly embittered the Portuguese, who during the fifteenth century had been the chief trading nation of the world, but were now feeling the competition of Holland and England. Nowhere did Portugal feel England's rivalry more

6 than in the Persian Gulf, where Ormuz had
 ORMUZ, 1621. been for years a great emporium of trade. In 1620 and 1621 more than one action was fought between English and Portuguese trading vessels, and in February 1621 a siege of Ormuz was entered on, which resulted in the surrender of the place to the English. This action marks the beginning of our supremacy in those waters, though for many years after this date it was not firmly established, for the Portuguese were by no means the only rivals we were called upon to face in the East Indies. Though we were at peace with the Dutch, they persisted in considering us as interlopers in those quarters of the globe which they regarded as their private property, and the Dutch Wars, which broke out soon after the death of Charles I., were mainly due to the jealousy caused by the success of English merchants in obtaining treaty rights to share in the commerce of islands which were under the territorial sovereignty of the Netherlands.

PERIOD II.

THE DUTCH WARS.

During the first three years of the Commonwealth a vigorous naval war was prosecuted between the Parliamentary Fleet and the Royalist ships that had been collected together in support of Charles II. under the command of Prince Rupert.

The hero of the Commonwealth at sea was Robert Blake, who pursued Rupert to the West Indies, and reduced him to such a condition that Rupert gave up the struggle and sold his ships to the French Government. By the close of the year 1651 the Parliamentary flag was supreme at sea, and its authority as the only English flag fully recognised. Meanwhile the jealousy and commercial rivalry between Holland and England had been growing more and more pronounced. The enmity between the two countries was one of the features of the reigns of James I. and Charles I., and in the first two years of the Commonwealth this enmity increased rapidly. By the middle of 1651 it was evident that both countries were preparing for a struggle. Both nations were rapidly extending their commercial power as that of Portugal declined, and both sought to be the chief carrying nation of the world. Large quantities of foreign goods, especially from the Far East, came into England in Dutch ships. In the East Indies the respective trading companies frequently fought one another. In 1623 a number of English traders and seamen had been massacred at Amboyna, in the Moluccas, and, though compensation had been made in money, the affair still rankled. In 1651 the passing of the Navigation Act¹ by Cromwell, which forbade the importation of foreign goods into England except in English ships or in the ships of the country producing them, struck a damaging blow at the carrying trade of the Dutch. In those days, too, it was expected that all foreign ships should lower their flags to the English flag, a demand which irritated the Dutch. This custom, originated in the days of Alfred, was recognised by international action as early as 1299, and was enforced by Edward III. England claimed to be the mistress of the Narrow Seas, and to exercise sovereignty as far as the

¹ See Notes.

Continental coasts. She patrolled those waters with her war-ships and kept the peace upon them. Already in 1635 the combined Fleets of France and Holland determined to dispute this claim of England, but, on the despatch of an English Fleet to enforce it, the protest of the two rival Sea Powers was withdrawn. This incident naturally increased the mutual dislike of Dutch and English, and was still remembered with bitterness.

Besides the growing commercial rivalry and the question of honouring the flag there was a third cause of disagreement—this was the Right of Search. England claimed the right in war time of searching the ships of any neutral nation for goods belonging to the nation with whom she was at war. As the Dutch did more of the world's trade than any other nation, Dutch ships were most frequently boarded and searched, and in some instances their ships were seized and adjudged as prizes by the English Courts. It was a determination to resist this Right of Search that led Holland to fit out a large Fleet under Tromp, who was ordered to cruise in the Channel to protect Dutch interests. Thus an actual outbreak of war between the rivals was inevitable, and only the occasion was still to be found.

In May 1652, the two nations being still at peace, Tromp with his forty-two ships appeared off Dover, apparently challenging the English supremacy in these waters. Blake hastened to find out the meaning of the demonstration, and on his arrival it is alleged that Tromp refused to salute the English flag. It is not likely ever to be settled whether this was so, nor can it be stated for certain which of the two Admirals commenced the attack: each laid the blame of the engagement on the other. It does not really matter much who began, it is sufficient to note that after a general action the two Fleets separated, the Dutch having lost two ships and the English none, although considerable damage had been done to Blake's fleet. This action marks the commencement of the struggle with Holland, though there was no declaration of war until after this battle. In Parliament it was not unlooked for that sooner or later, owing to the causes of friction that we have mentioned, a battle on the seas should be fought; but that the collision should have come so soon, and at a time when the chances of peace seemed to be improving, was of the nature of a surprise. It

is quite usual for States to go to war without any definite declaration thereof. The common idea that formal notice is necessary is probably due to the fact that history books use the phrase "war was declared" as a convenient expression for "hostilities commenced." Indeed, in the very warlike period of 1700 to 1870 there were only ten cases in which formal notice preceded acts of hostility. However, soon after this battle war between the two countries was formally declared, and continued till the Peace of Westminster, 1654.

In August Admiral De Ruyter, sailing past Plymouth, was attacked by Sir George Ayscough, and a stubborn but indecisive contest ensued.

In September the English Fleet under Blake—worthy successor of Drake, Frobisher, and Hawkins—met De Ruyter off Dover, close to the Kentish Knock, and a fierce battle resulted. Both sides lost many ships, DOVER (SEPT.), but the Dutch suffered most and ultimately 1652. retreated.

In November of the same year Blake with only thirty-seven ships was attacked near Dungeness by Tromp, who had a hundred vessels, and severely handled. Out-numbered by three to one Blake fought gallantly, and, after eight hours' continual struggle, escaped DOVER (NOV.), under cover of the night with the loss of five DEFEAT, 1652. ships. This blow was a serious one, the Dutch were in possession of the entrance to the Thames, and Tromp is reported to have hoisted a broom at his masthead as a sign that he had swept the English off the seas.

The Council of State, however, refitted their battered ships and prepared new ones. Blake, Penn, and Monk were entrusted with the three divisions of the Fleet, and sent out to meet Tromp. The Dutch Admiral with seventy-three men-of-war was sighted off Portland in February, as he was convoying a fleet of 200 merchantmen to the Dutch ports. Blake's force of seventy men-of-war was divided into three squadrons—he himself commanding the van or red squadron; Penn, the centre or blue; and Monk, the rear or white. Blake led the attack on the Dutch warships, and close and desperate fighting ensued. For three days—the 18th, 19th and 20th of February—the running fight continued from Portland Bill to Calais.

Tromp had thrown his Fleet into a half-moon formation, enclosing the merchantmen in their embrace, while outside the semi-circle Blake and the others thundered and grappled. In the end the English broke through the line of protecting battle-ships, and dealt out death among the merchantmen. By the close of the third day the Dutch Fleet had disappeared, and Dutch Naval power had received a terrible blow.

Till that day the war had been in favour of the Dutch, and England could not claim any advantage as a set off against the disaster at Dover in November. Holland, indeed, seemed to have clearly asserted its right to disregard England's claim to supremacy as asserted by the Salute to the Flag and the Right of Search. But the victory of Portland was the turning-point in the duel for sea-power between Holland and England—a duel which in the seventeenth century had taken the place of that between Spain and England in the sixteenth. The duel was continued with varying fortune on both sides for the next few months.

In May, off the coasts of Essex and Kent, Monk again met Tromp, and, after a desperate encounter in which the Dutch flagship was blown up, he routed the enemy, taking eleven prizes and destroying eight or nine of his ships. At one time during the fight the English were sorely pressed, but Blake fortunately arrived with eighteen ships and turned a doubtful engagement into a decided victory.

The Dutch, though much shaken by this encounter, prepared for another. Blake, who had been severely wounded, was still ill on shore when the English Fleet met the enemy between Lowestoft and the Dutch coast. The Fleets were very evenly matched. The battle that ensued was the last and fiercest of all those that took place between the two republics in their struggle for supremacy at sea. Just as the contest was at its height, and the Dutch were obtaining some success with their fire-ships, the brave, gallant Tromp was shot through the heart. Thereupon the Dutch turned and fled, pursued by the English till they reached the harbours of Holland. The victory was a complete one, and soon after the Dutch sued for peace. An advantageous peace was signed in April 1654 at Westminster, one of the clauses being that

the English flag should be saluted wherever it was met on the seas.¹

Proud of the success of his Fleet, confident in his Admirals, and desirous of expanding English trade, Cromwell now demanded equal trading rights with Spain in the West Indies. This privilege the King of Spain denied, and Cromwell prepared to make war on Spain.

What Drake had been to Elizabeth, that was Blake to Cromwell. As the former had "singed the King of Spain's beard," so the latter was now despatched "to put out his eyes." He was first sent by Cromwell's orders to destroy the batteries and Fleet of the piratical Bey of Tunis, who, with his fellow-corsairs of Tripoli and Algiers, was the curse of the Mediterranean. Blake speedily achieved his task, setting free the Christians who had been taken as slaves by these pirates, and carrying the English flag as a symbol of justice and power round the Mediterranean ports. Blake's cruise established in the Mediterranean Sea a claim to supremacy, which, though often threatened, has ever since been maintained. It also marks the starting-point of that system of police patrol of the seas which Great Britain has carried out for more than two centuries.

In 1655 Penn and Venables failed in an expedition against Hayti, then called Hispaniola, but seized Jamaica, of which place Cromwell made the most, and planted a colony there. Nearer home, Blake's next objective was the richly-laden Spanish Fleet, which annually returned from America to Spain carrying the produce of the gold-mines of the West. In order to intercept these galleons Blake, ably supported by Montagu, took up a position off Cadiz and awaited the Plate Fleet.² At last nine Spanish ships appeared and most of these

were promptly taken. Then Montagu returned to England laden with the spoil, but Blake

12 SANTA CRUZ remained, in spite of scurvy and tempest, maintaining the blockade of Cadiz and waiting for the (TENERIFFE), gold-ships to heave in sight. In April 1657,

1657. after more than two years' waiting at sea, he heard that the main portion of the Spanish treasure ships were in the harbour of Santa Cruz, under the peak of Teneriffe.

¹ *Extract from the Treaty of 1654.*—"The ships of the Dutch, as well ships of war as other ships, meeting any ships of war of the English in British seas shall strike their flags and lower their topsails as hath ever been at any time heretofore practised."

² See Notes.

Thither he dashed, and in spite of the heavy batteries and the difficult access to the harbour, he set all sail and swept in past the guns. For four hours the guns of ships and batteries thundered at each other. The Spaniards fought with great courage, but their marksmanship was bad. Blake's fire, on the other hand, was deadly and overwhelming. It was not long before the Spanish ships were in flames, and as none could be taken out Blake destroyed them all without the loss of a single ship. Having done his work the gallant Admiral sailed out again, past the batteries to the open sea. Though the actual gain to England was nothing, inasmuch as none of the prizes could be taken out of the harbour, the loss to Spain was enormous. An enthusiastic populace was eagerly expecting Blake's return, but it was doomed to disappointment. The great Admiral of the Commonwealth fell ill on his way home, and expired just as his flagship dropped anchor in Plymouth Sound. He left behind him a noble reputation for bravery and devotion to duty. Thirteen months later (September 1658) Cromwell followed to the grave his loyal servant, who had done so much to carry out his master's policy.

With Blake and Cromwell dead, and the pleasure-loving Charles II. on the throne, the Dutch once more thought it a suitable time to wipe out their defeats of 1653. The causes of disagreement were the same as before. Commercial rivalry, Colonial jealousy, quarrels in the East between the Dutch and the English Indian trading companies, all contributed to an outbreak of hostilities, which began by our expelling the Dutch from their African Settlements and by the seizure of their ships in the East.

The English also took possession by force of the Dutch Colony of the New Netherlands, situated between Virginia and the New England States. The capital—New Amsterdam—was re-named New York, in honour of the King's brother, the Duke of York, to whom Charles II. had given the new territory. This event took place in August 1664, before war had been formally declared, and in the following year the Duke of York, afterwards James II., was sent to sea in command of a powerful Fleet, to try conclusions with the Dutch Fleet. In this war the Duke of York adopted the new mode of fighting in line, and this method continued the rule of naval warfare until Rodney's great victory of 1782, when, for the first time, the enemy's line was broken. The first encounter

took place off Lowestoft, between that place and Harwich. The English by skilful manœuvring got the wind in their favour, and bearing down on the Dutch won a complete

13 victory. Several Dutch ships were blown
HARWICH, up, others were sunk, and the Dutch Admiral
1665. himself was killed. The Dutch Fleet, however,

though much damaged by this blow, refitted as quickly as possible, and by the middle of the next year was once more in the Channel under the command of De Ruyter. A portion of the English Fleet under Prince Rupert¹ was guarding the Straits of Dover, when Monk with only sixty ships suddenly fell in with the Dutch Fleet of ninety or more. Without hesitation he attacked the superior force. But being

considerably outmatched things went badly from
14 the first, and, after a valiant struggle lasting for
"FOUR DAYS" four days, Monk reluctantly withdrew with the
FIGHT (JUNE), loss of twenty ships. In the same year, within
1666. a couple of months, Prince Rupert and Monk

avenged this defeat by inflicting great damage on a Dutch Fleet off the North Foreland, and then carried on a series of small engagements against Dutch merchant ships. In many of these engagements Rupert and his captains behaved with great cruelty, and De Witt, at that time the leading statesman of Holland, determined to be avenged.

The ravages of the plague in England deprived the Navy of the services of many men, and consequently our Fleet had to lie up for a season at Chatham, where it was

protected by earth-works, and where at the same
15 time a boom was laid to block the estuary of
THAMES, the Thames. No sooner was the English Fleet
1667. laid up than De Ruyter appeared on the scene

again. With a strong Fleet he sailed into the mouth of the Thames, having broken the boom which had been carelessly laid, burned some men-of-war, carried off the *Royal Charles*, and spread dismay and terror through London and

the south of England. Before an English Fleet
16 of sufficient strength could be collected he had
SHEERNESS, set fire to our ships off Sheerness and destroyed
1667. the docks and town. His advance on London up

the Thames was stopped by the only method available—ships were sunk right across the river so as to block the channel.

¹ See Notes.

Soon after this daring exploit on the part of the Dutch peace was signed at Breda on 21st July 1667.

With the fall of Clarendon and the rise of the Cabal Ministry came a great change of foreign as well as of home policy. The better educated portion of the English people now began to perceive what Clarendon had never seen, viz., that the real enemy to the peace of Europe was Louis of France, and that his ambitious designs ought to be checked. They also perceived that the French monarch's desire was first of all to obtain possession of the Netherlands. Sir William Temple, the English Ambassador at the Hague, shared these views, and, aided by De Witt, he formed the Triple Alliance of England, Holland, and Sweden in order to carry out the policy of supporting the Netherlands against Louis XIV. But this sudden adoption of a great national policy early in 1668 was merely a concession to popular feeling, and was not in accordance with the King's views. The King wanted freedom from Parliamentary control, and he wanted money. His religious sympathies also were with Louis, and he would have liked to see Roman Catholicism once more predominant in England. He therefore, after winning over to his views Clifford and Arlington, two prominent Roman Catholic members of the Cabal who had publicly supported the new national policy, entered into a secret agreement with Louis, known as the Treaty of Dover (May 1670), by which he was to receive £200,000 a year in return for assisting Louis in his designs on the Netherlands. Having dismissed Parliament for two years, he now waited for an opportunity to carry out his nefarious agreement.

A favourable occasion soon arrived. In the spring of 1672 a large Fleet of Dutch merchantmen, called the Dutch Smyrna Fleet,¹ laden with the produce of the Levant, was being convoyed through the English Channel. Without any formal declaration of war they were attacked by Sir R. Holmes. Though the attack was unprovoked, and the Dutch were naturally unprepared, still they managed to beat off the English with the loss of only one merchantman and four of their protecting warships.

Immediately after this affair, in the month of March, war was openly declared on Holland by England and France, Charles alleging that the English flag had been insulted, so as

¹ See Notes.

to have popular feeling with him in his action. The first naval action took place in May, when the Duke of York, Montagu, who had been created Earl of Sandwich, and the

17 French Admiral d'Estrées encountered a Dutch
SOUTHWOLD Fleet under De Ruyter off the coast of Suffolk,
BAY, 1672. in Southwold Bay (Solebay). The struggle was
 a very fierce and severe one. The Earl of
 Sandwich refusing to abandon his flagship, which had been set
 on fire, was blown up with all his crew. Three other English
 ships which bore the brunt of the Dutch attack were destroyed,
 and, after a long day's fighting, the Dutch drew off, leaving the
 Allies in command of the scene.

Both sides lost heavily in men, and both sides claimed the victory. In the following year an attempt was made to invade

Holland, and three naval engagements took
18 place between the Allies and the Dutch off
DUTCH COAST, the coast of Holland. All three contests were
1673. of a fierce nature, and again the English and

Dutch lost heavily, the French not taking a
 very active part in the contest.

In the same year the passing of the Test Act caused the removal of the Duke of York from the command of the Royal Navy, as he was confessedly a Roman Catholic, and also brought about the downfall of the corrupt Cabal Ministry. Consequently the new Ministry, proceeding on the opposite principle, compelled Charles to make peace with Holland, and were fortunate enough to secure, by the terms of the Peace, an acknowledgment by the Dutch of England's supremacy at sea. Peace was therefore concluded early in 1674, the Dutch agreeing to lower their flags to English ships.

The foregoing struggle with Holland may be looked upon as three distinct wars. *First*, 1652-54, Peace of Westminster. *Second*, 1665-67, Peace of Breda. *Third*, 1672-74, Peace of Westminster.

PERIOD III.

TO THE TREATY OF UTRECHT.

From the conclusion of the Dutch Wars till the Revolution of 1688 the English Navy was not called upon to carry out any operations of first-class importance. The feeling of the

Navy as a whole was antagonistic to James II. at the time when William of Orange was requested to come to England, and William was able to induce the officers and men to accept the new order of things without recourse to warlike measures against those who sided with James. With his accession in 1689, the national policy described above was in full accordance with the King's own views. The new monarch, being of Dutch origin and a Protestant, assimilated the policy of England to that of Holland, and regarded Louis of France as an enemy, whose ambitious schemes it was his chief business to baffle.

The struggle for sea-power with Holland now gave place to that with France, with whom Great Britain remained on unfriendly terms, though not always openly at war, until the final overthrow of Napoleon.¹

Louis accepted the changed relations, and supported the fugitive King James in his designs for regaining the Crown of England. With this object in view the French directed their first efforts to regaining for James Catholic Ireland. A large Fleet was fitted out at Brest, and successfully conveyed the ex-King to Kinsale, where he landed with 5000 troops early in March. As soon as this news reached England, Admiral Herbert was despatched to find and fight the French Fleet, but it was not until after the siege of Londonderry had commenced that the English and French fleets met in Bantry Bay. A battle ensued, in which Admiral Herbert had the worst of the encounter, owing to the difficulty of concentrating his force, and after a two hours' fight he withdrew to the shelter of Portsmouth. He had, as a matter of fact, narrowly escaped a crushing disaster, but as this was the first naval engagement in William's reign the new monarch conferred upon Admiral Herbert the title of Earl of Torrington, perhaps as a matter of policy. The French, claiming the Bantry Bay affair as a victory, returned to France and proceeded to equip themselves for another effort to sweep our Fleet from the sea preparatory to an invasion of our shores.

By June of the following year their new Fleet, consisting of eighty-four well-equipped and well-manned fighting ships, was ready to put to sea in that month under the command of Admiral Count Tourville.

At that moment William was himself in Ireland, so there

¹ The only interval of real peace being from the Treaty of Utrecht (1713) till the outbreak of the War of the Austrian Succession (1740).

was a possibility of the French capturing the English King should he attempt to return to England. Holland in the meantime had sent a squadron to co-operate with ours, and,

19 by Queen Mary's orders, the combined Fleet of
BEACHY HEAD fifty-six English and Dutch ships of the line,
 (DEFEAT), under the command of the Earl of Torrington,
 1690. put to sea to fight the French. The Fleets met
 in the neighbourhood of Beachy Head on 30th

June, the day before William defeated James at the Battle of the Boyne. The odds were in favour of the enemy, owing to their superior quantity and quality of ships, and after a partial engagement, in which many English ships never got into action, Torrington beat a retreat to the mouth of the Thames, having made the Dutch ships bear the brunt of the fighting. Fortunately the French did not pursue their advantage beyond burning Teignmouth, after which they returned to France. Torrington's strategy in avoiding a decisive action has been much criticised. He was himself of opinion that if he had suffered a severe defeat, which was quite possible, England would be undoubtedly invaded, while as long as he had a "fleet in being" they would not make the final venture.

Louis now set about making more complete preparations for an invasion. A host of transports was collected, and an

20 army organised to be carried across to land on
THREATENED our shores. Meantime, however, Queen Mary,
INVASION, in the absence of William in Holland, had been
 1692. improving the Navy, and before Louis could
 equip a sufficient force to render the passage of

his troops secure a combined English and Dutch Fleet of ninety-nine ships under Admiral Russell was ready to protect the Channel.

Tourville, in command of only half that number, was sighted by the Allied Fleets off Cape La Hogue on the 19th of May.

21 In spite of his inferior number Tourville accepted
 LA HOGUE, the challenge, and, after a running fight of three
 1692. days, lost a number of his ships, the rest re-

treating for shelter under the guns of the nearest harbour. Some fifteen were unable to reach St. Malo, and sought refuge in the bays of Cherbourg and La Hogue, where the English caught and burnt them under the eyes of the French soldiers who had been assembled to invade our shores. Immediately after the fighting and the burning of

the warships all the flat-bottomed transports were destroyed, and thus all fear of an invasion was removed.

Before the Battle of Cape La Hogue took place the position of affairs had been most critical for England, but after the battle had been fought and won our island was once more safe. The first line of defence had again, as in 1588, saved our island from invasion. Though from the point of view of stubbornness of fighting and of loss of life this action does not compare with those of the Dutch Wars, still in the importance of its consequences it may be ranked as one of the chief naval engagements between the Armada and Trafalgar. It was after this victory that the Royal Palace of Greenwich was turned into a naval hospital, as a recognition to our sailors of the way in which they had done their duty.

Various attacks by English ships on French seaports followed. St. Malo, Brest, Dieppe, Havre, and Calais were all bombarded with varying success, considerable damage being done to French shipping. As a set off to these bombardments, all of which had proved successful with the exception of the attack

22 on Brest, a reverse was suffered off Cape St. Vincent. A combined English and Dutch Fleet under Sir George Rooke and van der Goes, in charge of the Smyrna Fleet¹ of merchantmen numbering some 400 sail, was attacked by Tourville with a large force off that Cape in June 1693, and was obliged to retreat, after losing ninety-two merchantmen, without doing the French much damage.

Louis, though so severely damaged at the battle of La Hogue, did not give up his plans for an invasion. In his various ports he again collected war materials and men, but the constant attack by fire-ships and the incessant bombardments of his seaports at last put a stop to his preparations. In 1697 he signed the Peace of Ryswick, by which he acknowledged William as King of England, and hostilities between the two countries ceased for a time. The ambitious schemes, however, of the French monarch were again excited by a succession of events during the next few years.

23 The throne of Spain became vacant in 1700, and Louis claimed it for his grandson, Philip, whose succession was soon formally announced. From this act arose the War of the

¹ See Notes.

Spanish Succession, which, like the War of the Austrian Succession nearly forty years later, was waged for wider issues than were implied by the ostensible cause of quarrel. Both these wars, like many others, arose really from the irresistible needs of national expansion, and the comparatively trifling occasion of the outbreak of the wars must not be regarded as the real cause. The causes are usually much more complex and not so easily grasped. James II. died in 1701, and Louis proclaimed his son, James III., King of England. In all directions Louis sought to extend his dominions at the expense of other people's rights, as is shown by the terms of the two Partition Treaties.

To meet the French King's pretensions an Alliance was made by England, Austria, and Holland. Meantime William had died, and Anne, on her accession in 1702, found herself compelled, with the help of her Dutch and Austrian Allies, to attempt the reduction of the continually increasing power of France. On land the war was conducted by Marlborough, while afloat Admiral Sir George Rooke was in command of a Fleet in the Channel and Admiral Benbow was cruising in the West Indies with two ships of the line, one ship of fifty-four guns, and four large frigates. At the same time a French force under Du Casse, consisting of four ships of the line and one

24

CARTAGENA,
1702.

frigate, was cruising in those waters trying to co-operate with the Spaniards against us. Benbow and the French Admiral sighted each other off Cartagena, the chief seaport of Colombia, and on the 20th of August both opened fire. To the disgrace of the English name Benbow's subordinate captains avoided entering the action, and treacherously left their brave Admiral to fight single-handed. Only one, the captain of the frigate, supported his Admiral, the others intentionally kept far astern. These two ships naturally suffered severely. In the course of the fighting a chain-shot shattered Benbow's leg, another damaged his arm, and yet, sick at heart and mortally wounded, the brave Admiral persisted in the fight. This one-sided contest went on for three days, at the end of which, to Benbow's lasting glory, the French sheered off. Benbow returned to Jamaica, and in due course his treacherous subordinates were tried and sentenced to death. The gallant Benbow himself died before the end of the year from his wounds.

Nearer home, Sir George Rooke was pursuing the same tactics that had succeeded so well in the days of Drake and Blake.

Cadiz was too well fortified to offer much prospect of success, but at Vigo a Fleet of seventeen Spanish galleons was known to

25 be in the harbour, protected by the batteries of that port and by a French Fleet of eighteen line-vigo, 1702. of-battle ships. As happened very often in our wars with Spain, one of the chief objects of our naval commanders was to capture the Plate Fleet. News had been brought to the English Admiral that the Plate Fleet, laden with three million pounds worth of gold and silver and much valuable merchandise, had arrived at Vigo under convoy of a French Fleet. On the 12th of October Rooke arrived off the entrance to Vigo harbour and determined to attack in spite of immense difficulties of the position. Troops were landed to advance on the town from the rear, and the ships opened fire from the front. After a hard fought day the French Fleet, as well as all the richly laden galleons of Spain, were either completely burnt, sunk, or taken, and Vigo itself surrendered. This was a very heavy blow so early in the war for the French and Spanish, and was regarded as a most auspicious opening of the struggle. The next year witnessed no naval action, but closed with a terrific storm, which wrecked thirteen English men-of-war on the terrible Goodwin Sands.

In 1704 Sir George Rooke was in command of the English Fleet in the Mediterranean, where he was seeking to fall in with the French Fleet that was known to be near Toulon. Not being able to come up with it, he determined on the bold stroke of assaulting Gibraltar, deemed from its natural and artificial strength to be impregnable. Ably seconded by Sir Cloudesley Shovel, the Admiral sailed into the Bay, and, landing 1800 men to assault the fortress from the mainland, opened fire on 21st July 1704. The English vessels poured in a furious cannonade, the English soldiers pushed on eagerly from the rear, only to be met with a stubborn resistance. After two days the

26 outlying works and mole were gained, and the MALAGA, defenders surrendered. Since then the fortress 1704. has been continuously in British hands, its position rendering it of such strategic value that its loss would be a very serious blow to the Empire.

Before the year closed Sir George Rooke encountered the Toulon Fleet under the Count of Toulouse off Malaga, and a bloody

engagement was fought, both sides suffering severe damage, the French line in particular owing to the rapidity and accuracy with which the English fired. In the end the enemy retreated, leaving five of their ships at the bottom, though they maintained afterwards that they had lost none.

The English were left in possession of the scene of conflict with their number of ships undiminished, and for the rest of the war no French Fleet challenged English supremacy. The efforts of the French were now directed to the destruction of our commerce, and to the avoidance of a regular battle. This mode of warfare naturally brought about several small isolated engagements, chiefly single frigate actions, some of which are of great interest and value as examples of bravery and energy, but none of which are of importance in their bearing on the ultimate issue of the war.

Moreover, the naval actions of the War of the Spanish Succession were completely overshadowed by the great land battles. It must be understood that the campaigns of Marlborough could not have been carried on unless his communications with England had been secure from attack, and in that sense, in addition to the importance of the actions here described, the Navy had most valuable work to do. It was also by its efforts under Sir John Leake that two determined attacks by the French on Gibraltar in 1704 and 1705 were repulsed. But the names of Blenheim, Ramilies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet naturally attract one's attention. In connection with Ramilies, however, it should be noticed that an English force marched

27 into the town of Ostend, being supported by some English ships, which first silenced the
OSTEND, 1706. batteries. In 1707 Sir John Leake succeeded

Sir Cloudesley Shovel in the command of the Mediterranean Fleet, and in the next year superintended the reduction of the island of Minorca. That island, with the valuable harbour of Port Mahon, became of great use in after years, and changed hands more than once before Britain finally relinquished it under the Treaty of Amiens in 1802.

Early in 1707 the King of France sent a small squadron to support the Pretender in Scotland, but the contemplated landing was stopped by Admiral Sir George Byng, father of the Admiral shot in 1757. The French were intercepted near Moray Firth.

The chief interest of England during this war, apart from

Marlborough's battles, lay in the West Indies. In those islands we were anxious to obtain new colonies by driving out the Spaniards, so as to foster our own commerce.

Our alliance with Portugal under the Methuen treaty, which practically gave Britain the monopoly of the Portuguese trade, and the simultaneous attempt to place Charles III. on the throne of Spain under the protection of the Coalition, diverted Britain from her object in the Far West. The Anglo-Dutch Fleets were therefore bound to the shores of the Peninsula, and as France was unwilling, after Malaga, to send a Fleet to their attack, no naval engagements could take place, and nothing of importance could be done in Spanish America.

When peace was made by the Treaty of Utrecht, the first noticeable result of the war as regards Britain was that she was now undoubtedly the *only Sea Power of the world*. During this War of the Spanish Succession Great Britain had, as Mahan says, "been building up her Navy, strengthening, extending, and protecting her commerce, seizing maritime positions—in a word, founding and rearing her command of the sea upon the ruin of that of her rivals, friends and foes alike." Hitherto she had been one of the great Sea Powers, fighting for the supremacy of the seas first with Spain and Portugal, then with Holland, and later with France; after this date she stood alone, the sole Sea Power of the world. The others had been forced to relinquish their claims, at all events for the time being; later on we shall see how some of them again asserted their right to be recognised as Naval Powers. The other results were, firstly, the great extension of Colonial empire consequent upon what has just been pointed out, coupled with the gain of Newfoundland and Nova Scotia, which in due time was to lead to the conquest of Canada.¹ With this extension of Colonial empire came a natural and very extensive growth of trade, more especially with the West, which was largely assisted by the Assiento.² Lastly, our position in the Mediterranean had been rendered much more important by the capture of Gibraltar and Minorca.

¹ See note, p. 35.

² See Notes.

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PERIOD IV.

UTRECHT TO PARIS, 1713-1763.

Philip of France, who, in virtue of the terms of the Treaty of Utrecht, had ascended the throne of Spain as Philip V., was deeply dissatisfied with the loss of Gibraltar, Minorca, and many valuable colonies, as well as with the partition of those territories in Europe which had formerly belonged to his new kingdom. More especially was he incensed against Austria, to whom had been handed over the Spanish Netherlands, Milan, Naples, and Sardinia. In his desire to regain these possessions he was urged on by his minister, Alberoni, a man of boundless ambition and of unscrupulous methods.

A trifling insult to Philip at the hands of the Austrian Emperor in 1717 was eagerly seized upon as an occasion for hostilities, and in the same year an expedition was sent to attack Sardinia, which reduced the island to submission in a few months. Not being content with this, the Spanish minister, Alberoni, prepared to take Sicily also, but France and Great Britain determined to intervene and to uphold the arrangements of 1713.

Admiral Sir George Byng was sent to seize or destroy the Spanish Fleet in the Mediterranean. He found them off Cape Passaro, and immediately commenced operations. His force, consisting of twenty-one ships, was superior in guns, seamanship, and discipline to that of the enemy. Of the

29 twenty-nine vessels opposed to him over twenty
CAPE PASSARO, were captured or destroyed, while the remaining
1718. Spanish ships in those waters were dealt with by

Captain Walton. The Admiral had sent this officer in command of a squadron to find what ships he could, and to fight them when found. How he accomplished his task is best learnt from his report to his Admiral: "Sir, we have taken or destroyed all the Spanish ships upon this coast, the number as per margin." The Spanish Navy being practically annihilated, Alberoni's schemes soon fell through.

Before peace was made, however, an abortive attempt at invading Scotland, with the object of supporting the Pretender against George I., failed miserably, only two ships out of the whole Fleet reaching the Scottish coast. Elsewhere in small

engagements the Spanish suffered numerous reverses both on sea and land, of which the capture of Vigo by Lord Cobham was the most important, and ultimately peace was concluded in 1720.

But this peace was only temporary. Five years later Austria and Spain entered into a close alliance hostile to our interests, to which George I. replied by concluding the Treaty of Hanover with France and Prussia. As Russia seemed inclined to join in the confederacy against us, a squadron was sent to the Baltic to check any hostile movement from that quarter, while Spanish America was threatened by a Fleet being sent to Porto Bello. This seaport, situated on the north coast of the Isthmus of Panama, was the great mart for the rich commerce of Peru and Chili until the abolition of the galleon trade in 1748. The expedition was a failure, owing to the sailors suffering severely from fever (*see* later). Meanwhile the Spaniards attacked Gibraltar (February 1727) with 20,000 men, but were repulsed with great loss, and, though Austria about that time withdrew from the struggle, Spain continued in a state of war until 1729. During the next ten years the British traders in the Spanish Colonies of America, assisted by the terms of the Treaty of Utrecht, pushed their business very energetically and in some places illegally. The Spaniards, suspecting these traders of being engaged in illicit traffic, adopted in self-defence a system of searching British merchant ships, with the result that continual quarrels arose. Matters being brought to a crisis by the affair of "Jenkins and his ear," Walpole was unwillingly forced in deference to public opinion to declare war. This happened in 1739.

The Spanish Colonies in America were the first object of attack. Admiral Vernon was sent out to the Spanish Main and made first for Porto Bello, the chief port of Venezuela. The Spaniards were taken by surprise, and the place, though deemed almost impregnable, surrendered after a brief resistance: the British lost only seven men. About the same time Lord Anson in the *Centurion*, with five other ships, was sent out to attack the Spanish possessions on the Pacific shores. The idea was for him to round Cape Horn, do whatever damage he could on the western shores of South America, capture any Spanish treasure ships he could lay hands on, and return by way of China.

The idea was a magnificent one, but the British Admiralty hampered the man they had selected for the task by placing him in command of worn-out ships, and by manning them with young, raw recruits or old, invalided sailors, many of them blind or otherwise unfit for sea. Moreover, his voyage

31
ANSON'S
VOYAGE,
1740-44. was delayed until winter had made the passage round the Horn extremely perilous. However, a start was made, and after a voyage lasting nearly four years, full of the most startling adventures and vicissitudes, Anson reached home again, being the second Englishman to circumnavigate the globe. He returned rich in treasure won from the Spaniards, and rich in fame and honour, but the sufferings that he and his crew endured were even more tragical than those of any expedition undertaken by his great predecessor.¹

Meanwhile Vernon, who had begun so well at Porto Bello, mismanaged an attack on Cartagena. Want of co-operation with the land forces under Wentworth forced
32
CARTAGENA,
1741. him to withdraw without accomplishing his object, and, after an equally unsuccessful attempt on Santiago de Cuba, he came home in disgrace.

Just before this expedition returned a great war had broken out in Europe in consequence of the death of Charles VI., Emperor of Austria. He had left his hereditary dominions to his daughter, Maria Theresa, but Charles, the Elector of Bavaria, claimed them on his death. Frederick of Prussia, wishing to obtain military glory and to enlarge his own dominions, took the side of the Elector and proceeded to attack Maria Theresa. France also joined the Elector, and Britain alone of the great Powers supported the Queen-Empress in her rights. Spain, against whom we had declared war some months previously, naturally joined the forces arrayed against Maria Theresa, inasmuch as Great Britain had espoused her cause. The disputes, therefore, that had given rise to the Anglo-Spanish War declared in 1739 were completely lost sight of in the bigger war that now supervened, and though the Peace at the end of the War of the Austrian Succession (1748) included Spain, the causes of friction between that country and Great Britain still remained, and brought about an outbreak of hostilities between the two countries in 1762. The War of the Austrian Succession involved a large number of conflicting

¹ See Anson's Voyage in "Fights for the Flag," (W. H. Fitchett.)

interests, nor was it confined to Europe. Though British troops fought on the Continent at Dettingen (1743) and Fontenoy (1745), the main struggle as far as Britain was concerned became a duel between France and herself all over the globe. Wherever French and British interests clashed, there was fighting carried on. India and America in turn witnessed the conflict. "Black men killed each other on the coasts of Coromandel, and red men scalped each other on the great lakes of North America."

From the outbreak of this war in 1740 until Napoleon's final overthrow in 1815, the struggle that was foreshadowed by the adoption of the anti-French policy, partially under Charles II. and entirely by William III., became one of vital interest to both nations.¹ Great Britain and France were in those days a long way ahead of the other nations of the world from most points of view, and the struggle was for the first place in the rank of nations. The objects of France were manifold. She desired, firstly, to expel Great Britain from the Mediterranean, and then, by sending her own Mediterranean Fleet to join her squadrons in the Channel, to annihilate British superiority in those waters as well; secondly, she hoped to oblige Great Britain to recall her troops from the Continent and to desist from supporting on shore the cause of Maria Theresa; finally, she looked forward to fomenting a revolution in England, and to restoring the exiled family of Stuart, in the person of Prince Charles Edward, by means of an invasion from Dunkirk. In this struggle the Fleets of the two opposing Powers played a decisive part. The Brest and Rochefort squadrons under Roquefeuille effected a junction in February, and 7000 troops under Marshal Saxe, with whom was Prince Charles, were embarked. But before the British Fleet under Sir John Norris came into touch with them a violent storm arose, and the French had to return with their object unaccomplished. In the following year, however, France succeeded in transporting Prince Charles to the coast of Scotland, where he landed in August on the coast of Lochaber. His gallant attempt to win back his throne can be read in the account of "the 45," but he narrowly escaped capture on his way to Scotland. His little expedition consisted of only two ships, and these were sighted and chased by a British warship, which opened fire on them. A short but sharp struggle ensued, and though con-

¹ See events of 1670 and 1689.

siderable damage was done on both sides, the Prince's ship managed to get away and continue her course to Scotland.

Before this incident took place an important action had occurred in the Mediterranean. In those waters a British Fleet of twenty-nine line-of-battle ships kept watch on a combined force of French and Spanish ships of the same number, but unfortunately the two British Admirals, Matthews and Lestock, were on bad terms, and when the opposing Fleets met Matthews

33
TOULON,
1744. found himself unsupported by his colleague. The latter, being in command of the rear division of the Fleet, made no effort to keep in touch with Matthews, so that the engagement took place with the British in a decided numerical inferiority. Even so, the British Admiral held his own, and the result was indecisive, both sides losing severely. There is no doubt a victory of some importance would have been gained if the Admirals had acted loyally together. Nor was it only in loyalty to one another that Englishmen at this time were wanting. There were instances of misconduct, and even of gross cowardice in action. There were frequent court-martials on captains who would not "go down to the fight."

After this battle of Toulon seven captains were punished, and a first lieutenant was shot for cowardice. The failure of Toulon was quickly followed by two other reverses in the East and West Indies respectively, resulting in the former case in the loss of Madras.

Owing to the rebellion at home of 1745, and the fears of a French invasion, our ships were now kept in home waters as far as Europe was concerned, but a few British ships were in the Indian and Atlantic Oceans.

34, 35
FINISTERRE,
MAY 1747,
OCT. 1747. In 1747, however, the French sent out two Fleets from Brest—the first in May under M. de la Jonguière, and the second in October under M. de l'Etenduère—with the object of attacking our distant squadrons, and thus of maintaining their communications with their possessions in India and America. Both these squadrons were intercepted, the first by Anson and the second by Hawke, not far from their starting-point, just as they were off Cape Finisterre. In both cases the British Fleets were decidedly superior, and in both cases the fight became a chase. The French, though making a gallant fight, found themselves too weak to hope

for success, and both engagements ended disastrously for them. Meantime Frederick had made peace with Great Britain early in 1745, and, before that year closed, with Austria also. But, as we have seen, France and Great Britain continued the war till the beginning of 1748. Great Britain had by that year once again become absolute mistress of all the oceans, regaining the proud position that she held immediately after the Treaty of Utrecht (1713).

36
BRITAIN'S
POSITION
SAVED BY
SEA-POWER,
1748.

The attempt of France to destroy this position had failed, and when war was formally ended by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in April, Britain was without a rival on the seas. Though her armies, as well as those of her Allies, had suffered severely on the continent of Europe, she was enabled to obtain peace on equal terms owing to her supremacy at sea. But for her control of the oceans at the close of the war France might easily have exacted humiliating terms, and with her grip on the Netherlands might have made her own conditions of peace. Though Louisbourg, the capital of Cape Breton Island, at the mouth of the river St. Lawrence, had been captured from the French in 1745, it was given back at the Peace, so that Britain's territorial status was unchanged by the war. The rights of Maria Theresa to her dominions were recognised by the Treaty, the only real gainer by the war being Frederick of Prussia, who obtained from Austria the province of Silesia.

It was not long before war broke out again. Indeed, the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, which in Europe itself had been little more than an armistice, had in other quarters of the globe been hardly as much. The disputes with Spain, which came to a head in 1739, had not been settled. With France our rivalry was yearly becoming more and more severe, both in the Far East and in the Far West. In India the question of French and British predominance in the Carnatic was still a burning one, rendered all the more acute by the able, crafty, and ambitious Dupleix, whose great aim was to expel the British from India and bring the whole Peninsula into subjection to France. Though the two nations were nominally at peace, the troops of Lawrence and Clive had been frequently opposed to those of Dupleix in a series of battles and sieges which had taken place in support of native rulers, set up the one against the other by the French and British.

On the coasts of Guinea, also, French and British had frequently come into irritating contact in the search for gold dust or in the pursuit of slaves. But this international rivalry, existing to a certain extent wherever members of the two nations met, was more acute in North America than elsewhere. In that country, where the French had first established themselves, they naturally objected to the gradual growth in numbers and power of the British Colonists. They therefore tried to keep the British entirely to the outer fringe of the coast-line, and to secure for themselves the sole command of the western regions. To carry out this idea, they erected a chain of forts and military posts stretching from the mouth of the Mississippi to the Great Lakes. Hence arose quarrels and conflicts between British settlers and French military forces. The native tribes also joined one party or the other, and added fuel to the fire by horrible outrages. A Colonial war between the two nations was bound to break out again, and the period from 1748-56 cannot be looked upon as anything more than a cessation of formal hostilities. In Europe, too, Maria Theresa, smarting under the loss of Silesia, had formed a coalition with France, Saxony, and Russia against Frederick, who, relying on the antagonism of France and Great Britain, turned to his uncle, George II., for help. The King, knowing that the Colonial schemes of France and his own country were bound sooner or later to result in open warfare, and also wishing to safeguard his interests in Hanover, threw in his lot with Frederick. And thus the outbreak in the Colonies in 1756 coincided with the opening of the Seven Years' War in Europe.

The first object that the French set themselves was to recapture Minorca, and, if possible, to drive the British entirely out of the Mediterranean Sea. The island was at that time held by the British force of 3000 men under General Blakeney. Admiral the Hon. John Byng was therefore sent out with a Fleet of twelve ships of the line to relieve the garrison, but on reaching Port Mahon he found it already being besieged by a French Fleet equal to his own in number and better manned and equipped. Byng made an unskilful attack on the French, and, after holding a council of war, he decided not to continue the fight, but to retire to Gibraltar, leaving Blakeney to his fate. For more than a month that gallant General held out, and then, thinking relief impossible, he surrendered (June 1756). Byng was recalled, tried by court-martial, and found

guilty of a grave neglect of duty and condemned to death. He was shot on board the *Monarch* at Portsmouth in March 1757, an execution which gave rise to Voltaire's oft-quoted remark—"En Angleterre on tue les amiraux pour encourager les autres." After this unfortunate occurrence the war in European waters degenerated into a series of expeditions against fortified places on the French coast. These expeditions had little effect on the actual course of the war, inasmuch as the expense incurred and the loss of life was about the same on both sides.

Before giving details of some of these we must briefly notice the naval events in the Far West and in the Far East. In October 1757 a British Fleet in the West Indies detached three 60-gun ships to intercept a convoy for Europe that the French were assembling in the neighbourhood of Jamaica. These three vessels, under the command of Captains Suckling, Forrest, and Langdon, fell in with seven French men-of-war off Cape François in Hayti, and, in spite of the long odds against them in the strength of the armament and crews, drove them off and returned to Jamaica without having suffered much damage. Few pluckier actions have been fought, and much credit is to be given to the three captains named above, the first of whom was the uncle of England's greatest naval hero.

In the Far East, early in January 1757, Admiral Watson ably assisted Colonel Clive to drive the Nabob of Bengal, Surajah Dowlah, who was in alliance with the French, out of Calcutta, and that city was occupied by our troops. Later on Watson and Clive invested the port of Chandernagore, which capitulated in March. These combined naval and military successes were quickly followed by Clive's great victory at Plassey on 23rd June 1757, which led to the downfall and death of Surajah Dowlah.

Within the year Admiral Watson died, and was succeeded by Admiral Pocock, who carried on his work in the East as successfully as his predecessor. The part these two Admirals and the naval forces under them played in helping to found the British Empire in India has not been sufficiently appreciated owing to the great attraction of the name of Clive, but it must never be forgotten that the fate of India could never be settled, in spite of our military successes on land, as long as

the French kept an effective fighting force in the Indian Ocean. It was Pocock who drove d'Aché out of those waters, and from that time the result was certain. The British continued to receive reinforcements from home, while the French did not; place after place fell, and ultimately Pondicherry itself had to surrender (*see* 1761).

In the Mediterranean in 1758 a French squadron was cleverly decoyed into the midst of a British Fleet off the coast of Spain. The French Admiral, finding himself in the midst of a hostile Fleet, signalled his ships to disperse singly. They were followed by the British. The *Monmouth* with a crew of 470 and 64 small guns gave chase to the *Foudroyant* with 1000 men and 80 heavier guns. The British so handled their guns that after a brief resistance the French struck their colours. Three of the expeditions mentioned above deserve a notice. In April 1758 Lord Hawke, who had succeeded Byng, attacked Rochefort, forced the French ships there to heave their guns overboard and run ashore. He then took possession of the Isle of Aix which is close by.

In August Lord Howe commanded an expedition against Cherbourg, and landed a large number of troops under General Bligh, who demolished the fortifications of that place, burnt twenty-seven French ships, and did much damage to the harbour.

In September, however, after a successful attack on St. Briac, an unfortunate attempt took place on the port of St. Malo. The General, finding the town too strongly defended, endeavoured to re-embark at the little port of St. 38
ST. CAS, 1758. Cas, but was surrounded by a force ten times as strong as his own and severely beaten. General Bligh was recalled in disgrace, though the fault was only partly his. The Government was largely to blame in ordering the expedition. The resources of the nation were grievously wasted in expeditions, which, even if successful, could have but little effect on the result of the war. Our real policy ought to have been to sweep the enemies' ships off the seas and leave their territory alone.

Within the year 1758 two actions were fought between the rival Fleets, but without anything very decisive being accomplished. The most important event of the year was the successful expedition carried out under Admiral Boscawen against the great fortress of Louisbourg, on the south-east coast of Cape

Bréton Island. This place had been taken from the French in the War of the Austrian Succession, but had been restored at the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. It had been thoroughly fortified, especially on the sea face. Besides Boscawen himself, Rodney, Hughes, and Wolfe, all of whom were to attain fame, took a share in the expedition. After severe fighting the fortress fell into our hands, and the fortifications were later on completely destroyed. Thus the mouth of the St. Lawrence was open to our ships, and in 1759 General Wolfe was ordered to attack Quebec. In this same year a battle was fought in the Indian Ocean off the Coromandel coast by Pocock's squadron against a superior French Fleet under Commodore d'Aché. The battle was a severe one, in which Pocock was entirely successful. Without losing a single

39

EAST INDIES,
1759.

ship he so battered the French that the Commodore was obliged to retreat, and sailed away to the Isle de Bourbon, leaving Pocock in command of the Indian Ocean. This engage-

ment, though not on a very grand scale, had most important consequences, causing the overthrow of the French power in India, inasmuch as the British Fleet was left in possession of the lines of communication, so that the French could receive no reinforcements from home. Meantime the plans for the conquest of North America were being carried out. Four expeditions were entered on in 1759 with this object in view. Three of them were military, but the fourth, which we have already mentioned, was as much naval as military. It had as its object the capture of Quebec. The expedition left Louisbourg in June, and in September 1759 Quebec was captured, and the fair province of Canada¹ won for Great Britain.

The operations of Wolfe before Quebec furnish an admirable example on a small scale of what sea-power can do to assist land warfare. The French were forced not only to watch, but to occupy many miles of shore; the British, being in possession of the river, could post themselves anywhere on the banks that were not actually occupied by French troops, and could move where they pleased. They could cannonade from the water any portion of the French shore, and the enemy could never feel safe from attack at any point or at any moment.

¹ The term *Canada* at that time meant the existing provinces of Ontario and Quebec. Nova Scotia and New Brunswick had been ceded to us in 1713. See Geographical Sketch.

A description of the siege of Quebec is not necessary in this sketch, but it is worth noting that Wolfe's venture against the Heights of Abraham was only rendered possible by the naval strength that he possessed. It was this element in the battle that enabled him to make his bold attempt, and though, owing to the death of the gallant Wolfe in the hour of victory, attention has been directed more to the Army than to the Navy, yet the senior service bore an indispensable and a distinguished part in the memorable siege and capture of Quebec. The three admirals—Saunders, Darell and Holmes—who were in charge of the naval forces were all the superior of Wolfe himself, there were twice as many seamen as soldiers in the expedition,—the Fleet determined the British strategy throughout, and put the army in a position to win the great tactical success on the Plains of Abraham.

And not only is it true that this signal victory could never have been gained, as we have indicated above, without British sea-power, but it could not have had permanent results without the continued influence of that power. These events in the St. Lawrence and on its rugged shores formed an integral part of a world-wide war, of which the naval power of Great Britain was the unifying principle, for the blockade of the French coast, Boscawen's victory off Lagos, and Hawke's victory at Quiberon Bay, were just as important factors in the North American War as the operations on the spot. We must realise then that France had failed to hold her own at any great distance from her base owing to her naval weakness; and as, in the East, India was lost to her by her inability to cope with Britain's sea-power, so also, in the West, Canada had to be given up for the same reason.

France, on finding herself outmatched on the sea and obliged to retire before Great Britain in the distant quarters of the world, realising that she had lost India and Canada in consequence of this inability to keep her communications open, determined to concentrate all her efforts on one object, and that was once again the invasion of Britain. From the beginning of 1759 preparations were being made in the ports of France for embarking 50,000 men for the invasion on the southern coast, and 12,000 for Scotland.

Two squadrons were fitted out, one at Toulon, another at Brest. These were to form a junction at the Morbihan, and

then escort across the Channel the transports conveying the army to Ireland, where an insurrection was confidently expected. Five frigates were to convey another army to Scotland, where a Jacobite Rising was to take place; and a much larger army was to make a dash for the south of England in boats from Havre.

The project ended in dismal failure, though the fear of invasion had never been greater since the Armada lumbered up the Channel. It was scarcely greater even in Napoleon's day. To guard against this combined attack the British Navy developed the system of regular blockades for the first time in history, this ever memorable year of 1759 being even more remarkable for the growth of the art of war by sea than by land. Two small squadrons cruised off Dunkirk and the Morbihan, Rodney watched Havre, Hawke blockaded Brest, and Boscawen closed the Mediterranean Sea, while Admiral Smith held the reserve squadron ready in the Downs. With Boscawen and Hawke rested the chief work, for the Fleets in Toulon and Brest respectively had to join forces before the other forces could dare to come out.

Admiral Boscawen in command of the Mediterranean Fleet of fourteen men-of-war was on the watch near Gibraltar, and when De la Clue with the Toulon Fleet was approaching Cape St. Vincent he caught him
41 approaching Cape St. Vincent he caught him
LAGOS, 1759. off the port of Lagos, a few miles east of the
 Cape. Unfortunately for the French some of
their ships had already made for Cadiz, and the main portion of their Fleet was vastly inferior to the ships under the British Admiral. In spite of our numerical superiority, the French made a gallant but useless resistance, and after a few hours the Toulon Fleet was partly taken or destroyed, and the remnant dispersed.

The Brest Fleet was also being carefully watched by Lord Hawke, whose task was the more important of the two. The French Fleet under Conflans consisted of 25 ships, manned by 15,200 men and carrying 1598 guns. The British Fleet numbered 23 ships, with 13,295 men and 1596 guns. The two Fleets, therefore, were practically equal, with a slight advantage in favour of the French. But the circumstances under which the two Fleets had to operate were vastly different. Hawke had to blockade a Fleet slightly superior to his own, with his ships exposed to the full force of the Atlantic waves.

The French Fleet lay snugly in harbour, out of the wind and in close communication with their base of supplies. For nearly six months Hawke held grimly on, the tedium of the blockade being relieved by numerous brushes with the enemy, but in November a terrific gale forced the British from their station, and they were obliged to put into Torbay. When Conflans learnt that the British had retired, he put to sea with the hope of overwhelming Commodore Duff, who was in charge of a small squadron watching the French transports in the Morbihan. Hawke, however, left the shelter of Torbay at the same time, and, judging intuitively that Conflans would sail towards Quiberon Bay, hastened in that direction. He sighted the French near Belle Isle on November the 20th. His frigates quickly gained on Conflans's rear, leaving his heavier ships of the line behind, and thus the British Fleet was at a very serious disadvantage, as they were in number and strength of ships inferior to the French on whom they were gaining. At this period our Navy had been for some time suffering from a want of dash in the conduct of its battles. The lack of decisive actions in the wars immediately preceding the Seven Years' War was due to a great extent to the regulations which prescribed a certain method of fighting, to which admirals were considered to be bound to conform.

Most of the actions of the War of the Austrian Succession, though a large amount of damage was frequently done, were indecisive, in the sense that the side that retreated was not utterly smashed up by its opponent as it ought to have been. The opposing Fleets seldom came to close quarters as in the days of Drake and Blake. The hostile Fleets would sometimes be in sight of each other for days with only a half-hearted cannonade taking place. Hawke was an Englishman of the "up and at them" sort. He determined to attack in the old way, and to make downright work of his foe. But as the attack began, the clever Conflans boldly ran towards the shore near the mouth of the Vilaine river. He had pilots

42 on board who knew the coast, Hawke of course had not, and he hoped to wreck his enemy on QUIBERON BAY, the rocks while sailing safe himself. Where a Frenchman can sail, however, a Briton can follow.

Lord Hawke on the *Royal George*, ably supported by Commodore Howe in the *Magnanime* and Captain W. Speke in the *Resolution*, dashed in among the rocks and

shallows of the Bay to attack the French at close quarters. This difficult task was rendered much more dangerous by the weather. A fierce gale was blowing, which became wilder with the approach of night. During the night the gale slackened none of its fury, and the next day broke as wild as the night. On the morning of the 21st the *Resolution* was seen to be ashore, and, oddly enough, the French flagship had anchored in the midst of the British. She also went ashore later. In the end the entire French Fleet was either burnt, driven on shore, taken, or sunk, with the exception of some few ships which, throwing their guns overboard, sought shelter in the river. Hawke lost two ships, which ran ashore, and about fifty men only; while the enemy, as a fighting force, was annihilated. There is no other record of a sea fight under such wild conditions, and few have achieved such decisive results. Quiberon Bay may justly claim to rank with Trafalgar and La Hogue, for it saved Britain from invasion. Following so quickly the defeat of the Toulon Fleet at Lagos, this battle completed the destruction of the naval power of France, and gave a new character to our naval warfare. It wiped out the system that brought Byng at Minorca into disgrace, and once more restored to the British Navy the character of intrepid daring of attack founded by our sixteenth century admirals, and strengthened by Hawke, Howe, Rodney, and Nelson later on.

The year 1759 was therefore a very eventful one in our history. On the Continent our ally, Ferdinand of Brunswick, had defeated the French at Minden, and by that victory had recovered his lost lands. In North America the fall of Quebec had practically decided that the future of that enormous territory lay within the power of the English-speaking race and not with the French.

In the West Indies, Guadeloupe had been captured. In home waters all the principal ports of the enemy were blockaded and their Fleets rendered powerless. The defeat of De la Clue by Boscawen off Lagos had been followed up by Hawke's great victory over Conflans in Quiberon Bay, and Rear-Admiral Rodney had destroyed a quantity of flat-bottomed boats and supplies of all sorts collected at Havre for an invasion of our shores.

Pitt's policy of sweeping the French Navy off the seas had been gloriously accomplished. "It was necessary," said Walpole,

writing of this *annus mirabilis*, "to ask every morning what new victory there was, for fear of missing one." One brave French leader however—Commodore Thurot—escaped with the Fleet from Dunkirk, and early in 1760 he appeared with some frigates off the coast of Ireland, effected a landing, and captured Carrickfergus. But this success was shortlived. His frigates were encountered by a squadron of the same strength under Captain Elliot off the Isle of Man, and were all captured, Thurot himself and many of his sailors were killed. The great successes of this wonderful year were quickly followed in the January of 1760 by the victory of Colonel Eyre Coote at Wandewash, a victory that had as great an effect on the future of India as that of Quebec had on the future of North America. There was more work to come in both those great territories, but the command of the seas off those distant shores had been secured, and there could be but little doubt of the result.

In October 1760 George II. died, and with the accession of George III. the war went on with unabated vigour. All fear of invasion being at an end, the British attacked the enemy in their own land, and captured Belle Isle, an island in the Bay of Biscay, in June 1761. In the West Indies, Dominica fell into our hands in the same month, while in the East Indies Pondicherry, which had been besieged early in October 1760, was gradually reduced by famine, and surrendered in January 1761. Thus ended the French power on the coast of Coromandel.

The French now induced the Spaniards to come to their rescue, with consequences that were disastrous to their new ally. Spain had already decided to throw in her lot with France according to the Family Compact,¹ and was only waiting for the arrival of the annual Plate Fleet from South America. Directly this Fleet was safe in Cadiz she once more

declared war against us.² Before the year

43

HAVANA, AUG.
1762.

ended the new combatant was bereft of some of her most valuable possessions. The first blow to them was the loss of the treasure ship

Hermione, taken by the *Acteon* and *Favorite* off Cadiz in May. In March an expedition under Pocock had sailed for Havana, and after a siege of some months, aided by a large land force, captured that important centre of Spanish American trade, taking also twelve ships and three millions

¹ See Notes.

² Vide Spanish War in 1739-1748.

of money and merchandise. Captain Duncan, who was destined to become one of Britain's finest admirals, greatly distinguished himself on this expedition, both by his personal bravery and his capacity as a leader. Martinique, Granada, St. Lucia, and St. Vincent came into our possession in consequence of various actions in West Indian waters.

In the East, Admiral Cornish had been given the task of capturing Manila, the capital of the Philippine Islands. His task was carried out with the same success as was his colleague's task in the West. Manila fell after a gallant struggle, and with it followed the surrender of the whole group of those islands. Treasure ships also, containing silver worth nearly £2,000,000, were taken.

44
MANILA,
1762.

Spain and France now sued for peace, and the war was brought to a close by the Treaty of Paris, 1763. By its terms France renounced all claims to Ontario, Quebec, Prince Edward Island, Cape Breton Island, and exchanged Belle Isle for Minorca, which had fallen into her hands in 1756, retaining Martinique, St. Lucia, and Guadeloupe. Newfoundland had been ceded to us by the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713, but certain fishing rights had at that time been granted to the French; these rights were now confirmed, and the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon were handed over to France, merely as a shelter for the French fishermen. We kept Tobago, St. Vincent, Dominica, and Granada; Manila and Havana were restored to Spain, the latter in return for Florida. In India, Great Britain retained her conquests, except Pondicherry and Chandernagore, which were restored to France on the condition that they were held only for purposes of trade.

45
RESULTS OF
SEVEN YEARS'
WAR, 1763.

The Seven Years' War was an excellent example of the importance of the command of the sea. Pitt had used the weapon of sea-power as it had never been used before; in all parts of the world our military forces had been enabled to strike hard and with startling effect. The result of the war can be summed up in one sentence: Great Britain had grown into the British Empire. Never before had she played so great a part in the history of the world; never before had she given such proofs of her great resources and mighty sea-power; the supremacy of the British nation on the sea, and beyond the sea, had never

before been so clearly asserted and so clearly proved; never before had she achieved such a high position and prestige in the eyes of the nations.

PERIOD V.

AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.

But this growth and greatness entailed a heavy expenditure. The National Debt had swollen to enormous dimensions. It was felt at home that our Colonists in America should help to pay the expenses of the administration of the Empire, and attempts were made to levy taxation on them though they were not represented in Parliament. Hostility and resistance were aroused by harsh measures, and hence came riots and consequent acts of repression. Matters became more and more serious, culminating in the formal declaration that America was "free, sovereign, and independent," and in General Burgoyne's surrender at Saratoga¹ on 17th October 1777.

It was in March 1778 that France officially recognised the revolted Colonies, and immediately sent ships and troops to aid them. Putting aside the land operations, there were off the coast of America some encounters in the neighbourhood of Sandy Hook, and some naval operations in the West Indies near St. Lucia, while nearer home Admiral Keppel was sent to cruise off Brest in order to prevent a French Fleet reinforcing the Colonists. The two Fleets came in touch on the 27th of July not far from Ushant, late in the day, and until it became dark the firing was very hot, many ships on both sides being crippled. During the night the French escaped. The indecisive result on this occasion is said to have been due, as had been the case too often before, to a bad understanding between the Admiral and his captains. At this time the British Navy was badly handled and in want of a great admiral. There were men with the right stuff in them, but commands were in the hands of aged or inferior officers; and it is sad to think the merits of capable officers were overlooked by the rulers of the country.

46

USHANT,
1778.

¹ Stamp Act passed 1765, repealed 1766. Duty on tea imposed, June 1767. Boston Harbour Riot, 1773. Boston Port Bill, 1774. Revolution and first blood shed at Lexington, 1775. The thirteen Colonies declare their independence, 4th July 1776.

Spain, smarting under the loss of Gibraltar, now joined France, and these two Powers, each possessing a formidable Fleet, determined on a great combined effort to crush Britain once for all. With three Powers against us, it was almost impossible for our ships to be fighting everywhere, and consequently it was with dismay that a powerful

47
SERIOUS
CRISIS,
1778-79. Fleet of sixty-six ships of the line and a large number of frigates, flying the flags of France and Spain, was seen cruising in the Channel, defying capture and preparing for an invasion.

Fifty thousand French troops were assembled at St. Malo. Our own ships were fully occupied, scattered on the face of the waters, many of them being either in the West Indies or farther north in the Atlantic, and some attempting to relieve Gibraltar, which at this time was being invested and fiercely bombarded by a Spanish Fleet.

Our defence lay simply in the indecision of the foreign Admirals. They could not agree on what should be done, and consequently did nothing. Their powerful Fleet, after being in possession of the Channel for days, accomplished nothing beyond the capture of one line-of-battle ship, and separated to ports of France and Spain, fearing the equinoctial gales and a repetition of the destruction of the Armada of 1588.

Meantime another Fleet had been fitted out at home under the command of Rodney. His duty was to carry food and ammunition to our beleaguered soldiers in Gibraltar, and then to join his forces with those under Sir Hyde Parker in the West Indies. On his way he was lucky enough to fall in with and capture seven Spanish ships of war and a convoy of sixteen provision ships. This happened not far from Finisterre. Proceeding southwards, he sighted just before reaching

48
ST. VINCENT,
1780. Cape St. Vincent a Spanish Fleet of eleven ships of the line, whose Commander seeing the British Admiral with twenty-one men-of-war naturally tried to escape to a Spanish port. It

was nearly dark before Rodney came within firing distance, and, fearing the enemy's escape, he forced a fight through the night. Soon after daybreak it was found that four ships had surrendered, including the flagship, four others had been sunk or blown up, and only three had escaped. The Spanish Navy was not famous for making a stiff resistance when fighting

British sailors, as was shown by the old phrase, "A Spanish ship chased is a Spanish ship taken."

In due time Rodney relieved Gibraltar and Minorca, and then sailed to the West Indies. It was some time, however, before he could get at the French Fleet, which preferred the harbour of Martinique to the open sea. By every means in his power he tried to tempt them out of shelter of the guns of Fort Royal, the harbour of Martinique, but in vain. The British Admiral, as a last resort, proceeded himself to harbour at St. Lucia.¹ This ruse succeeded, and as soon as the French Fleet was well out Rodney attacked them.

49

LEEWARD
ISLANDS,
1780.

It has already been shown how the want of discipline, not so much amongst the men as amongst the officers, had on more than one occasion caused an action to fail, either partially or altogether. Politics had something to do with this, especially amongst those in the highest position. There was also a great lack of obedience to the Admiral's orders amongst those in command of ships. The captains resented interference with their own actions or with the control of their ships. On this occasion Rodney had to suffer from this want of unquestioning obedience,—his signals directing the attack were not attended to; his Fleet was scattered; and his own flagship left unsupported. With great courage he attacked alone, and, though fearfully battered, his magnificent manœuvring and fighting was such that he achieved his object in preventing the French Fleet from regaining the shelter of Fort Royal, and drove it to Guadeloupe.

Before 1780 closed another foe was added to the powerful combination against us. Holland's² attitude had been very threatening for some time, and the suspicion that she was aiding and abetting our enemies was proved to be true. The British Government preferred an open enemy to an untrustworthy neutral Power, and declared war. The naval combination against us was now too strong for us to leave the Channel unprotected, so Sir Hyde Parker was called back from the West Indies to protect our coasts, and to force an engagement with our new foe.

¹ Taken by Admiral Barrington, December 1778.

² Holland had recognised the independence of the American States in April 1778.

On 9th August 1781 the Fleets met with the same old spirit as in the early Dutch Wars. The firing did not open till the opposing ships were close to each other and the damage done in the three or four hours during which the engagement lasted was very great. At the end of that time the Dutch retired to the shelter of the Texel, leaving Parker, whose squadron was too much damaged to pursue, in possession of the scene.

50

DOGGER BANK,
1781.

On Holland joining in the war Rodney had seized the island of St. Eustatia, with a vast store of tropical produce and 250 merchant ships, and was contemplating further attacks on the possessions of the Allies in the West Indies, when a very powerful French Fleet arrived on the scene. De Grasse, who was in command, attempted to crush Rodney and Sir Samuel Hood, who were in command of two separate squadrons, each much inferior to the French Fleet, by taking them singly. In this design, however, he was frustrated, owing to the clever seamanship of Admiral Hood, who outwitted him by his manœuvring and joined Rodney. No Fleet action took place.

In the West Indies hurricanes are of frequent occurrence in the autumn, and both sides determined to leave the neighbourhood of the Antilles and sail farther north. At the same time Rodney himself returned home to England, leaving Hood as second in command under Admiral Graves off the American coast. Before the opposing sides had been long in these waters an engagement was fought in Chesapeake Bay of an indecisive character.

51

GRAVES FAILS
IN CHESA-
PEAKE BAY,
1781.

The French were severely handled, but were still in sufficient strength to prevent the landing of any British soldiers to support the Royal forces who were fighting the Colonists on the mainland. They were reinforced a few days afterwards, bringing their Fleet up to thirty-two ships of the line, a force so superior to ours that the British army under Lord Cornwallis found itself in an untenable position at Yorktown.

That General, after the Battle of Guildford, had been hemmed in by General Green, and had taken up a position on a small peninsula, relying on the British Fleet to keep his base free from attack. But, as has been shown, Graves could not accomplish his task of keeping off De Grasse, and

so Cornwallis was forced to surrender with all his forces. This disaster, which occurred on the 19th October 1781, was entirely due to the loss by the British of the command of the sea. It finished the war as far as the Colonists were concerned, and the independence of the United States, though not formally acknowledged till the Peace of 1783, was now practically admitted.

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LOSS OF THE
AMERICAN
COLONIES,
1781.

But the claim of France, Spain, and Holland, that they had succeeded in depriving us of our command of the sea, and had reduced us from the proud position which we held after the Treaty of Utrecht (*see* p. 26), was not to be admitted without a much more severe struggle. It had indeed been temporarily lost, but before peace was made it had to be regained.

Meantime, in addition to the loss of the American Colonies, Spain recaptured Minorca, thus depriving us of the valuable harbour of Port Mahon. She was also carrying on with great vigour the terrific siege of Gibraltar, whose position was becoming daily more desperate. The French Fleet under De Grasse, disregarding the force under Graves, had done enormous mischief to our trade and possessions in the West Indies. That Admiral had retaken St. Eustatia, and had also captured Essequibo, Demerara, St. Kitts, Nevis, Montserrat, and Tobago. All his efforts were now directed towards an attempt on Jamaica, and it seemed that the whole of our islands in the West would be lost.

His intention was frustrated by Rodney in his celebrated victory of Dominica on 12th April 1782. This victory is called by various names. The terms: "Rodney's Victory," "Battle of Dominica," "Battle of Martinique," "De Grasse's Defeat," "Battle of Guadeloupe," and "Battle of the Saints," all refer to this action. It was fought in a large basin of water lying between the islands of

53

WEST INDIES,
RODNEY,
1782.

Guadeloupe and Dominica, near a group called Les Saintes. He had returned to the West Indies seeking his old enemy, and at last he found him. For some days after sighting each other both sides manœuvred to get the wind with them, and when the British Admiral had secured the position, he bore down on the foe. It was early morning when the battle began, and it lasted till nightfall. Up to mid-day the fight was one of ship close to ship, each side pounding away as hard

as she could. But at twelve o'clock there was a gap in the Frenchman's lines. Rodney in the *Formidable*, signalling to the first half dozen of his ships to follow him, pushed through the gap, engaging the enemy on the other side, thus placing half the enemy between two fires, while the other half was rendered useless. His skilful tactics were eminently successful. In spite of most gallant behaviour on the part of De Grasse, who, attacked on both sides, maintained to the end a magnificent but hopeless struggle, the French were utterly defeated with tremendous losses. Rodney was well supported on this occasion, and the behaviour of his captains showed a different spirit from that from which he suffered in his fight in 1780 off the Leeward Islands. Indeed, he was one of the few Admirals employed between 1778 and 1782 who could deal in a masterful manner with indifferent subordinates.

This victory is memorable as being the first battle in which this breaking through the enemy's line was employed, and also as being the turning-point of the war. Whether this breaking up of the enemy's line was really the great tactical achievement that some writers state it was, or whether it was a sudden inspiration on that occasion due to the shifting of the wind, does not now much matter. The fact remains that the line was broken and that Rodney won the battle. The *Ville de Paris*, on which De Grasse had fought so splendidly, was captured with the Admiral, five other great ships were taken, one was sunk, and the whole array broken up in flight. A few days later Hood captured two more men-of-war and two frigates, and the great enterprise against Jamaica was wrecked.

And how had Gibraltar fared during the three years of siege? The Spaniards had deprived us of
 54 Minorea a month before Rodney's victory.
 MINORCA LOST, But the "Rock" was still holding out under
 1782. the courageous General Elliot. A great combined attack, consisting partly of huge floating batteries and every imaginable engine of warfare, was repulsed in the following September, with fearful loss to the attacking forces. A few days after this last supreme effort on the part of the Spaniards.
 55 Lord Howe arrived with reinforcements, and
 GIBRALTAR, Gibraltar was again relieved, though the siege
 1782. was not actually raised till the end of the war.

In the East, too, there had been fighting on the sea. France

was represented off the coast of India by Admiral Suffren, perhaps the ablest naval officer France has produced. He was

56
EAST INDIES, 1782. at a disadvantage when compared with Hughes, who was in command of the British squadron of eight ships of the line and some frigates, in having no base nearer than Mauritius, whereas all the

Indian ports were open to Hughes. Owing partly to this reason and partly to the fact that Suffren was not well supported by his captains, the British Fleet, though often severely handled, was never so decisively beaten as to render Suffren's Fleet safe from attack when the British had refitted. These actions¹ therefore prevented France giving Hyder Ali any help in his rising against Warren Hastings, and preserved our command of the sea in the East at a very critical period.

In 1783 the Peace of Versailles ended the war, with formal recognition of the independence of the United States, and the cession of Florida and Minorca to Spain.

The quarrel with the Colonists thus had its issue in one of the greatest events of modern history. A great new State arose in the world, British in origin, language, and tradition, but taking its own line in political affairs, independent of British, even of European precedents.

It was a State that, in spite of menaces and possibilities of dissolution, has remained united, and has grown by the absorption of neighbouring territory, by immigration, and natural increase of the people to be superior in population and territory to all European States, save only Greater Britain and Russia. In the whole history of the world there has been no previous example of the foundation of such a mighty State on new territory,—a State so highly organised at the starting point of its career, and one in which the free will of man is in so high a degree active and alive. Nor is there any other example of two great nations so closely allied to each other in blood and tongue, so closely connected by the bonds of commerce and of common aims, as Great Britain and the United States.

Recent events tend to prove that this great sister nation of the West is cementing these ties in a genuine and open-minded friendship with her natural ally, and that she is likely

¹ For details see Captain Mahan's "The Influence of Sea-power upon History," Chap. XII.

to take up in the future a larger share of the white man's burden of attempting to raise the down-trodden and oppressed, even when they are some distance from her own shores. *Adsit omen!*

For ten years after the close of this war peace reigned supreme in the British Navy, though on one occasion war seemed on the point of breaking out. In 1789 the Spaniards seized a British ship, and destroyed a settlement of Colonists on Nootka Sound, in Vancouver Island, claiming the west coast of America as their own. This hostile action was met by Pitt with a strong hand. He caused a very powerful Fleet to be collected in order to demand restitution, and thus gave proof of his firm but pacific policy, in which he was much helped by the weight of the Triple Alliance. Spain, on realising that Britain meant to protect her Colonists, agreed to surrender Nootka Sound, and compensation was made.

The mutiny of the *Bounty* also occurred in this year.

Apart from these incidents there was no disturbance at sea, and it was not until the effects of the great upheaval of the masses against the Royal party and aristocrats in France had made itself felt far outside the limits of France itself, that the necessity of asserting British power arose.

PERIOD VI.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

A history of the French Revolution is not within the scope of this sketch of British naval history, but it was owing to that Revolution that Great Britain was again compelled to send her ships to sea. Not only had the methods of the French Revolutionists, the dreadful scenes of the Reign of Terror, and the wild abuse of power, shocked the greater portion of Britain, but the attempts of some of the French leaders to stir up all peoples against their Governments to sow the Revolution over the whole of Europe, and more especially to nourish rebellion in Ireland and in India against British rule, had rendered war between Great Britain and Revolutionary France inevitable.

France declared war on the 1st of February 1793. Pitt immediately made up his mind as to the general policy for the

conduct of the war. On land we were to assist the monarchies of Europe by providing them not with men but with money, while at sea the British Fleet was to annihilate the French Fleet and to capture the French Colonies. Small expeditions also were to be undertaken to aid the French Royalists. Our Navy at the outbreak of the war, though consisting of rather more ships, was inferior to the French Navy both in the size of ships and in the armament. Though our ships had actually increased in size, they had not done so to the same extent as the French. In fact, they did not differ materially from those that had fought the Dutch rather more than a hundred years before. Neither had the weapons in use made much advance. What had altered was the system of managing large numbers of ships. Fire-ships had practically disappeared, and the confusion that used to mark the movements of large numbers of ships had given way to an improved system of tactics. Briefly, then, we entered on the struggle under much the same circumstances of naval warfare as we had finished our last war. The first performance of our Navy was an attempt to hold Toulon against the Revolutionists. It was still in the hands of the Loyalists, and a British Fleet under Lord Hood was sent to assist the inhabitants against the troops of the Convention. The harbour was taken possession of without difficulty, but there were not enough soldiers to man the forts and protect the town against

57
TOULON,
FAILURE,
1793.

the French troops, who were coming down from the north 60,000 strong. These troops soon arrived, and their batteries, under the skilful direction of the young Captain Napoleon Bonaparte, made the town and harbour untenable.

Lord Hood had no option but to retire and leave this valuable naval base in the hands of the Revolutionists. Had he shelled the town he would have only killed those whom he came to protect, so he first destroyed all the French men-of-war in the harbour, and then left Toulon to its fate. The incident shows the necessity of an efficient Army as well as an efficient Navy for operations on the coast line.

Although this expedition to Toulon was a failure in that it failed to accomplish its object, still it inflicted a very serious blow on the French at the onset of the war. The French power in the Mediterranean was broken, and it now became necessary to attack Brest, the great French naval base in the

north-west. It so happened that in the spring of 1794 America was sending its friends in France a huge convoy of corn ships, laden with a cargo valued at £5,000,000, to help France out of the difficulty she then had in feeding her people. The previous year France had suffered severely from famine, and this convoy was coming over to supply the deficiency. Lord Howe was in command of the Channel Fleet, and had sailed from Portsmouth with the intention of convoying a large Fleet of merchant ships to seas of safety, meaning afterwards to capture the American convoy and to attack the Brest Fleet.

On the 28th May the rival Fleets sighted each other, but a fog came on, and for two or three days they manœuvred to get the weather-gauge. On Sunday, 1st June, Lord Howe, having the wind in his favour, sailed down upon the French, after his men had had a solid breakfast. It must be remembered that the French had a Fleet of twenty-six line-of-battle ships, with seven frigates and some small craft. The British had twenty-five line-of-battle ships and seven frigates. Also, as has been stated above, the French ships were superior as fighting machines; they were of a heavier tonnage, had more guns and heavier ones, and their men numbered 20,000 to our 17,000. Lord Howe signalled his Fleet to bear down on the French, each ship selecting an opponent and going straight for her. The battle of the "Glorious First of June" was therefore

58
USHANT,
1794.

one of individual ships—a series of duels. Howe himself, in the *Queen Charlotte*, made for the *Montagne*, a beautiful ship of 120 guns, of 800 tons greater displacement than his own flagship.

His captains acted in a similar manner, and soon all our ships were hotly engaged. By noon the battle was practically over, so severe had been the firing. Eleven British ships were dismasted, twelve French ships were riddled through and through, and both sides had had enough. The French Admiral, Villaret Joyeuse, retired from the scene, leaving six of his ships in the hands of the British and one at the bottom of the sea. This was *Le Vengeur*, which sank with about 200 men shortly after striking her flag. The loss in men was very severe. Killed and wounded the French lost 7000, while the British lost 1200. The engagement coming so early in the war gave immense confidence to the British, and, following on the destruction of the Mediterranean Fleet, was of great

value. The American convoy, however, was not intercepted. Lord Howe was nearly seventy years of age at the time, and the great strain and fatigue prevented him making the most of his victory. The convoy escaped to Brest, where it anchored in safety.

Technically, therefore, the fight might even be called a failure, and indeed the French claim it as a victory. When, however, the results of these two actions are taken into consideration, it becomes evident how much France lost by them. It was not merely the loss of ships; these might be replaced, but a large number of her best seamen had been either killed or taken prisoners, and could not be easily replaced. The training of an efficient seaman takes longer than that of an efficient soldier; besides, all the exertions of the French were at this time directed to her armies. Large armies were absolutely necessary to France at this period, and their ranks had to be filled. Lord Hood, at Toulon, and Lord Howe, off Ushant, must be credited with having accomplished much more than is at first evident to a reader at this distance of time, for the two fights taken together inflicted a blow on France which relieved Britain, for a time at all events, of the great fear of invasion.

Nor had we been less successful in carrying out Pitt's plan of attacking the French Colonies. In the course of this year nearly all the French West Indian islands were reduced by Britain. Sir John Jervis on sea, aided by Sir Charles Guy on land, early took possession of Martinique, while later on St. Lucia and Guadeloupe both fell.

Nearer home, too, the French had been attacked on their own soil. Lord Hood, after the Toulon affair, had proceeded to Corsica, where the natives were eager to throw off the French yoke. The operations there at first were of a negative character, until Lord Hood placed the conduct of the military portion of the venture in the hands of Nelson. After an enormous amount of hard work, and almost unaided by his superiors, Nelson captured Bastia and Calvi, the two chief fortresses of the island, and Corsica for a time became British. It was whilst besieging Calvi that Nelson lost his right eye, through a splinter of a rock thrown up by a shot striking him and wounding him severely. Great Britain owned Corsica for only a brief period. In the latter half of 1796 the islanders

59

CORSICA,
1794-95.

once more declared for the French, and Sir John Jervis, who was then in command of the British Fleet in the Mediterranean, found himself compelled to give up his design of trying to preserve the possession, owing to his inferiority to his enemies in those waters.

Early in 1795 the forces of Holland, which, having been practically absorbed by France, had allied itself with her under the title of the "Batavian Republic," were arrayed against us in addition to those of France herself. For the moment this made little difference, though later on it helped to bring about a serious combination. Still the Dutch Fleet, though not actually very formidable, was to be carefully watched and kept in its ports. This task was assigned to Admiral Duncan, who was now in command of our North Sea Fleet, and he carried it out magnificently in spite of tremendous difficulties. Deserted at one time by all his Fleet except two vessels and confronted with a mutiny, he gallantly did his duty, finishing his sea service by the important victory of Camperdown, which came two years later, after incessant labour¹ (*see* 1797).

The year 1795 witnessed a masterly ruse on the part of Admiral Cornwallis, who, being surprised by a vastly superior French force, made signals to an imaginary distant British Fleet and thus induced the French to draw off. A few days later, however, this imaginary Fleet actually arrived, under the command of Lord Bridport,² and an action took place off Port L'Orient, in which the British took three of the enemy's line-of-battle ships without suffering any loss beyond that of the lives of a handful of brave British sailors. In the latter portion of the year Admiral Hotham twice met a French Fleet in the Mediterranean and twice inflicted some considerable damage with only small loss to himself. In both actions the Admiral neglected to utilise his advantage to the full extent. The year 1795 witnessed also the loss of St. Lucia and Guadeloupe, which had been retaken by the French, a loss more than compensated for by the bloodless capture of the Cape Colony.

The Dutch Colonists there were surprised by a large British force, and, resistance being useless, a capitulation was signed, by which the Colony was ceded to Britain after being in the hands of the Dutch for 143 years.

¹ *See* H. W. Wilson's "Adam Duncan."

² Brother of Lord Hood.

In the following year a Dutch Fleet which had been sent out to help the Colonists arriving too late, put into Saldanha Bay, and was there caught as in a trap by a much stronger British Fleet on one side and a large British army on the other. On the 17th August the Dutch Admiral was obliged to surrender his Fleet of nine ships and nearly 2000 soldiers and sailors without even an attempt to resist.

61
SALDANHA
BAY, 1796.

In the same month of this year Spain, moved by causes that cannot be dwelt on here, had thrown in her lot with the Republic. And so once more we were confronted by the combined forces of France, Holland, and Spain, eager to assist in the overthrow of Great Britain, which was to be accomplished by sweeping her flag off the seas and then by an invasion in force of her shores. The position was indeed critical.

62
SERIOUS
CRISIS,
1796-97.

It is true that we had already met the French Fleets and had been successful in the encounters, but the success was only a very limited one. Even if we include the "Glorious First of June," we had never completely captured, burnt, or sunk all the ships opposed to us, so that the French Fleets were still very formidable.

The Dutch had not as yet done much, but they had been preparing energetically, and a large Fleet was known to be approaching completion for sea.

In Spain all the great ports were making preparations for revenge on Britain. Two years before the French unaided had made a start with an expedition to Ireland, which, though unsuccessful, showed what immense resources

63
ABANDONMENT
OF THE MEDI-
TERRANEAN,
1796.

our wealthy and powerful neighbour had at her disposal. And now the addition of Spain to our foes forced Sir John Jervis not only to abandon Corsica, but to retire from the Mediterranean altogether. Being much inferior to the combined Fleets of France and Spain, he betook himself to the harbour of Gibraltar, where he lay up under the protection of the guns of that fortress.

Meantime the French expedition for the invasion of Ireland had sailed. Fortunately a gale came on, the ships were dispersed, the frigates narrowly escaped capture, but still, in spite of mishaps, some French line-of-battle ships managed to reach

Bantry Bay. However, no actual attempt at landing was made, and the few ships that had kept together made their way back to Brest. The year 1797 therefore found Britain expecting and preparing for invasion from the Allies. Unsupported by any other Power, she had to depend on her Navy—her first and only line of defence. Seldom had her naval supremacy been so boldly challenged. Great

Britain was standing alone in her splendid isolation. The plan of the invaders was for the Spanish Fleet to sail from Cadiz, join the French Fleet from Toulon, destroy the British Mediterranean Fleet near Gibraltar, then to proceed to Brest, sweep away the British ships blockading that port, pick up the French ships at Brest, dash into the Channel, and then descend on Ireland.

Once firmly established on that island, where the French had reason to think that they would meet with some measure of support, England and Scotland were to be invaded, and perfidious Albion could then be degraded from her proud position. The best method of defending the British Islands was to prevent the junction of these various Fleets and to defeat them in detail. To Sir John Jervis, whose Mediterranean Fleet had been strengthened up to fifteen warships, fell the task of meeting the Spanish Fleet and joining issue with it before the Toulon Fleet could attack him. The odds even without the assistance of the French were enormous. Don Josef de Cordova had twenty-seven ships to Jervis's fifteen, headed by the *Santissima Trinidad* of 130 guns, and six more ships of 120 guns, whereas the *Victory* (Sir John's flagship) had only 100 guns, and was supported by only one other of a like weight of armament. In fact, the Spanish Fleet had over 1000 guns more than we had.

On 14th February Sir John discovered the Spanish Fleet off Cape St. Vincent, and immediately bore down on the enemy.

Fortunately the Spaniards had divided their forces into two divisions, which were 3 miles apart, so that Sir John, by quick action, cut in between the two divisions and attacked at close quarters. Though the Spanish were vastly superior in numbers and armament, the British were their masters in seamanship, in the handling of their guns, and in

quiet discipline. Sir John had during the previous years of his command trained his subordinate officers and his men to a high pitch of efficiency. There was now a much healthier tone amongst the senior officers, and there was no trace of hanging back through pique and disapproval of some action or order of the chief in command.

As the British ships passed through the gap between the two divisions they bore up to windward, and the close fighting became general. One of the last British ships to approach the gap was the *Captain*, under the command of Commodore Nelson, who, as he approached, noticed that the great Spanish flagship and some other huge three-decker were about to try and bear up together so as to move across and join their lee division. To do this they would have to pass to the rear of the British Fleet, and as the wind was with them, they probably would have succeeded in effecting a junction and would then have got clear away. Instantly Nelson decided not to follow the British line, but to turn and give battle to the Spanish giants. The *Captain* was only a 74 gun ship, the smallest but one in the Fleet, and yet, by this bold manœuvre, she found herself in action with the flagship of 130 guns, two ships of 112, one of 80, and two more of 74 guns. Nelson's indomitable courage, however, was equal to anything. He stopped the Spanish three-deckers until more ships came to his assistance, and actually took two of them by boarding and fighting hand to hand. To Nelson falls the honour of the victory of Cape St. Vincent as well as to the Admiral who so skilfully conducted the original attack. The Spanish Fleet was soon fearfully damaged, and by five o'clock completely disabled. Four ships surrendered, the rest escaped into Cadiz, where they were blockaded, and whence they never sailed till after the war.

The year thus began with a great success for us, but it was not to continue in the same fortunate manner. The sailors had been for some time discontented with their pay, victuals and general treatment, and matters came to a head during the year. Two dangerous mutinies occurred at Spithead and at the Nore, the latter being especially serious. Concessions and redress of grievances were granted, and none too soon. There was undoubted ground for the discontent; and although these mutinies were disgraceful in themselves and did much damage to the tone of the British Navy at the time, and not only at the

two chief centres of disaffection but also in some of our other squadrons, as in the case of the *Tremendous* at the Cape and the *Hermione* in the West Indies, still they proved a blessing in disguise. Since that time the comfort of the sailor has been cared for more and more by the authorities, and at the present day the life on board a man-of-war is infinitely superior to that which obtained in the last century.

It is characteristic of British seamen, aggrieved and discontented as were those who mutinied at the Nore, that when the King's birthday (4th June) came round they dressed their vessels with the regulation bunting and fired a royal salute. Having thus shown their loyalty to their sovereign, they again hoisted the red flag of rebellion and resumed their quarrel with the Admiralty.

About four months after the fight of Cape St. Vincent Nelson was sent on an expedition against the Canary Islands, which ended in complete failure. An attack

67
SANTA CRUZ Cruz de Teneriffe, but the landing party was
(FAILURE), hopelessly outnumbered and lost very heavily.
1797. Nelson himself was severely wounded, losing
his right arm, many of his brother officers were
also wounded, and over 200 British lost their lives.

Whilst these events had been taking place the Dutch Fleet had got ready to join the French and Spanish, but could not sail out of the Texel, being blockaded there by Admiral Duncan. This officer's Fleet had been reduced to only one ship in addition to the *Venerable*, but he maintained his watch over no less than fifteen Dutch ships with grim determination. By signalling to imaginary reinforcements he kept the Dutch in the Texel till the reinforcements really arrived, and thus continued his blockade all through the summer. By October his Fleet was sadly in need of provisions and repair, having carried on a long blockade under conditions almost as trying as those under which Lord Hawke had so stubbornly watched the French some forty years before. The Admiral therefore sailed to Yarmouth with most of his Fleet, leaving five ships to watch the Dutch. This was the enemy's opportunity. Just as Conflans had escaped from Brest so De Winter now escaped from his shelter near Texel Island, but even as the French Admiral was caught and beaten in Quiberon Bay so now was he Dutch Admiral caught and beaten off Camperdown.

Hardly had the Dutch left shelter than the news was brought to Yarmouth, and Duncan started in pursuit. He came up with his foe not far from Scheveningen.

68 The fight resembled those against the Dutch
CAMPERDOWN, under our great soldier-Admiral—Blake. Both
1797. sides sought each other, and, having got as

close as possible, pounded at each other till they could pound no longer. It ended in a complete and signal victory for Duncan. Nine Dutch ships out of a total of fifteen were taken, and the rest were so battered that they were no longer serviceable. Our own Fleet had also suffered severely. Though no British ship was lost, all were badly wounded in their hulls, the *Venerable*, Admiral Duncan's flagship, being terribly riddled. The battle was decisive in that it destroyed the Dutch Navy. Never again did that force cause us serious uneasiness. Thus the second great factor in the powerful alliance against us was reduced to a negligible quantity, our own shores were for the time free from attack, and all our attention could be devoted to the French.

What had France been doing up to now, and what was her immediate aim apart from the projected invasion? In the spring of 1796 Napoleon had entered Italy, and, after a brilliant campaign, had frightened the whole of that country into submission. Austria also had sued for peace, and by giving up the Austrian Netherlands and other provinces to France, had obtained it. In May 1798 Napoleon began to put into operation his scheme for destroying the British power in India, by undertaking the conquest of Egypt as the key to the road thither. Nor was this the only reason Napoleon had for occupying Egypt. His reports to the Directory show clearly that at this time he hoped by occupying that country to force the British to send portions of their Fleet to India and the Red Sea. When this was accomplished the Channel would be comparatively free, and a large force might be landed on the shores of England. A large French Fleet therefore started from Toulon, and escaping for a time from the vigilance of Nelson, who had been sent to stop it, arrived at Alexandria at the end of June, after capturing Malta from the Knights of St. John on the way. Then came the Battle of the Pyramids, the overthrow of the Mamelukes, and the capture of Cairo. Napoleon's army in Egypt was supported by a powerful Fleet under Admiral Brueys, who had taken up a strong position in

Aboukir Bay. His Fleet consisted of thirteen ships of the line and four frigates, and he was further strengthened by a battery placed on an island in the Bay. Nelson's Fleet, about equal in number but vastly inferior in the size of its ships and in the number of its guns, after much searching for the enemy found them in this strong position on the 1st of August.

Nelson at once signalled to his Fleet to commence the engagement. The *Vanguard*, Nelson's flagship, with five others, took up a position on the outer side of the French Fleet, whilst the other ships, led by the *Goliath* and the *Zealous*, got in between the French ships and the shore. The first six or seven ships of the enemy were thus caught between two fires, while their rear ships being anchored in the same line could do nothing. Unfortunately the *Culloden*¹ ran aground on the shallow shoal, but with that exception Nelson's tactics were admirably carried out. Before night closed nine out of the thirteen French ships had struck their colours, one was burnt, and *L'Orient*, Brueys' flagship, had blown up, causing frightful loss of life. The gain to Great Britain was immense. The victory had demolished all Napoleon's hopes of conquering India, and, in addition to destroying a large portion of his sea forces, had locked up in Egypt an army that had no chance of retreat. The naval power of France in the Mediterranean had been broken, and this meant new foes for her. Russia, Turkey, Italy, and Germany were encouraged to renew their struggles to be free from Napoleon's domineering yoke, and, aided by money supplied by the British Government, the Continental nations persevered in their fight for freedom.

In spite, however, of our naval successes, the French had not given up their designs on Ireland. One expedition from Rochefort landed a small force in Killala Bay, but had to surrender. This occurred at almost the same time as Nelson was fighting in Aboukir Bay. A little later another expedition from Brest on a greater scale was caught in the act of approaching the Irish shores, and practically annihilated by Admiral Warren.

During 1798 the remains of the Dutch Fleet had no wish to

¹ Captain Troubridge.

essay a repetition of Camperdown, and remained in their ports. But in 1799 Dunean was again blockading the Texel, and in

71 August was joined by a large British Fleet under Admiral Mitchell, who had orders to land the combined British and Russian army in Holland. The Dutch Fleet surrendered without a shot being fired, and the landing was effected, though the subsequent performances of the army were not productive of much advantage to the Allies.

In the East, in spite of the defeat of Aboukir Bay, Napoleon had not given up his designs on Turkey and its valuable possession—Egypt. His troops had marched through the desert into

72 Syria early in 1799, capturing Jaffa and Gaza, and were steadily pursuing their path towards Constantinople. The Sultan of Turkey determined to make a stand at Acre, which stood right in Napoleon's road to his capital. The Turks were supported by a British brigade under Sir Sydney Smith, who also had a small squadron on either side of the narrow peninsula on which the town is situated. The Turks fought gallantly, as they always do in defence of any kind of a fortification, and, with the British to lead and support them, made several gallant sorties on the advancing French. The vessels stormed at their flanks and harried their rear. Breaches were constantly being made in the crumbling walls, and once the tricolour was planted on a tower, only to be torn down, and the French again repulsed.

The siege was, in fact, a succession of bold attacks and as bold sorties. After this onslaught had been resisted for sixty-four days, Turkish reinforcements hove in sight on the blue waters of the Mediterranean. The French were forced to give up the attempt on the town, fearing to be surrounded on all sides. Napoleon ordered the retreat, leaving some 3000 magnificent troops buried in the trenches. His failure to capture the town meant to him the abandonment of his designs on Constantinople, and consequently the impossibility of carrying out his designs on the East. He led his army back to Alexandria, defeated the Turks at Aboukir (25th July 1799) where one of the most complete victories in his brilliant career was achieved, handed over the command of his troops in Egypt to General Kléber, and, learning that the British men-of-war had temporarily withdrawn from off the port, embarked for France in a frigate escorted by four others. He was fortunate in escaping

capture by the British frigates which were patrolling the Mediterranean, and arrived in Paris in October.

During his absence in the East the Russians and Austrians had broken the Republican power in the north of Italy in a succession of victories, which concluded with that of Novi (15th August 1798), while Nelson, ably seconded by Troubridge, was fighting the cause of Royalty in the south. Minorca, in possession of the French since 1782, had been recaptured by the British under General Stuart in November 1798 without the loss of a man. In June 1799 Naples surrendered to Nelson, and the following November the French troops were driven out of Rome by the Neapolitan Royalists, assisted by the British, and the Pope reinstated. For a time the British flag floated from the flagstaff of the Capitol.

These events bring us to the close of the eighteenth century. Before we leave it, it is worth while to notice how its tactical history divides itself into two strongly contrasted periods.

The earlier period is dominated by a spirit of fighting only by means of rules, by the worship of the line-of-battle formation, in which ship was disposed against ship, and is illustrated by the melancholy history of indecisive fighting associated with the names of Matthews, Byng, and Graves.

In the later period the touch of genius, of tactical initiative and originality, is revived, first under the splendid inspiration of Boscawen and Hawke, and afterwards reaching its fulness in the tactics of Rodney, Hood, Howe, and Duncan, and, above all, of Nelson.

These men saw what their predecessors seemed to forget—that the thing was to beat the enemy, not to fight him according to rule without beating him.

The attention of Great Britain was now concentrated on Malta, which was being attacked by an inadequate force under Captain Ball. In February 1800 Nelson sailed

73 for the island, capturing on the way a small
MALTA, 1800. French squadron bound for the relief of the
French garrison. This disaster meant starvation to the defenders of the fortress, who still held out in great want and distress for five months, grimly guarding their possession till September, when they capitulated.

PERIOD VII.

BRITAIN V. NAPOLEON. TRAFALGAR.

But on land Napoleon had again shown his consummate genius. Forcing a passage over the Alps he reached Milan in June, with the object of recovering all the territory he had won for France in his earlier campaigns, which had been lost in his absence. Before the year was out his influence over Europe was completely restored by the great victories of Marengo¹ and Hohenlinden,² which shattered Austria's power so completely that the Vienna Government gave up all hope of prosecuting the war successfully. Peace was concluded between France and Austria at Lunéville in February 1801, leaving Great Britain as the sole antagonist for Napoleon to deal with. Russia had been already won over to Napoleon's side by skilful diplomacy soon after the return of the Russians from Novi, and the Czar Paul openly recognised Napoleon as a friend.

Unable, even with the aid of Spain and Holland, to drive the British flag off the seas, Napoleon determined to enlist the active sympathy of Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, and found an excellent argument in the "Right of Search." Great Britain had always held the opinion that if a ship belonging to a neutral nation had on board goods coming from or going to an enemy, such goods might be seized. In the present war the neutral nations most affected by this theory of Britain, which she had always put into practice when occasion demanded it, were precisely these three nations named above, who in 1780 had already formed themselves into a combination against us, under the title of the "Armed Neutrality," but who had not actively opposed us up till this time. In June 1800 an admirable opportunity for Napoleon arose. The Danish frigate *Freya*, escorting a small convoy, was treated in the manner above described by a British squadron, and resisted forcibly the British "Right of Search." A fight took place, the *Freya* was captured, and Napoleon lost no time in stirring up the animosity of the three nations of the North against Great Britain. We now, therefore, at the opening of the year 1801

¹ 14th June 1800. Desaix and Kellermann.

² 2nd December 1800. Moreau.

found ourselves at war against France, Spain, Holland, Russia, Sweden, and Denmark.

Without losing a moment the British Government, under the energetic administration of Pitt, sent out an expedition to attack Copenhagen and destroy the Danish Fleet before our six enemies could unite in any combined action against us. Sir Hyde Parker, with Nelson as second in command, sailed for the Baltic with a Fleet of twenty ships of the line and six frigates early in the month of March. On the 30th of that month the British Fleet sailed up the Sound, and, passing Elsinore, anchored 15 miles from Copenhagen.

The Danish position was found to be very formidable. A long line of battleships and floating batteries were drawn up in a narrow channel full of dangerous shoals, backed up by the forts of the town. All buoys had been removed, and it is no wonder the British Admiral was undecided as to the wisdom of an attack. Not so Nelson, he volunteered to undertake the attack with a portion of the British Fleet. The request was granted, and Nelson, with only twelve ships of the line and the frigates and sloops of the Fleet, boldly led the way into the jaws of the enemy. The Danes fought with great

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COPENHAGEN, 1801. For hours the struggle raged fiercely, the firing at such close quarters causing fearful loss of life to both sides. Sir Hyde Parker heard and saw

the contest, but could not bring his heavy ships into the shallows where the conflict was raging. Not being able to share the danger, he resolved to take responsibility on his own shoulders, and signalled Nelson to "Cease firing." But Nelson was in no mood to be stopped. Putting the glass to his blind eye, he said he could see no signal, and ordered the signal for "closer action" to be made. By this time the Danish fire was beginning to slacken; their flagship was in flames, many of their floating batteries were sunk, half their ships were mere wrecks. Before nightfall the Danes, brave as they were, were compelled to hoist the white flag, and the Battle of Copenhagen was won.

This victory, quickly followed by the death of the Czar Paul,¹ broke up the "Armed Neutrality" of the North, and with the dissolution of this confederation came a desire for peace on both sides of the Channel. Britain and France had both strained their great resources to a very severe extent; both were anxious

¹ His son, Alexander I., was in sympathy with Great Britain.

for a breathing space in which to recoup. Great Britain had brilliantly retained her command of the sea, thus making it impossible for France to injure her in her own island, or in her Colonies, while, on the other hand, France could not be injured on land without Continental allies, or by a larger military force than Britain could conveniently send across the Channel.

It will be remembered that a French army had been left by Napoleon in Egypt. This was attacked in March 1801 by a British force under Sir Ralph Abercrombie, who drove the French off the field of battle into the fortress of Alexandria after a severe contest. The victory was a dearly bought one, the British General dying of his wounds a few days after the battle. In consequence of the defeat the French signed a convention and withdrew from Egypt, being transported to France in British ships.

In the Mediterranean in July 1801 Sir James Saumarez, when making an attack on Algeciras and a French Fleet in that harbour, was repulsed, leaving one of the
75 ships in the enemy's hands. Within a week,
 CADIZ, 1801. however, the tables were turned. Meeting the
 same Fleet rather nearer Cadiz, he again gave
 battle, and retrieved his disaster by sinking two of the enemy's
 ships and taking a French **74**.

Negotiations for peace were now entered on, and in March 1802 a treaty was signed between France and Great Britain at Amiens. Spain and Holland also made peace at the same time. Britain agreed to recognise the French Republic, and to hand over Malta to its former owners, the Knights of St. John, and to restore to France all its conquests. Trinidad and Ceylon, both taken from the Dutch, were to be kept.

But though peace had been signed, both sides knew it could not be for long. Napoleon's ambition was unsatisfied, the British Isles had not been invaded, nor had her "meteor flag" been lowered, and until both these schemes were carried out he would not be satisfied. No time was lost across the Channel in making preparations for an invasion. In all the French ports, besides ships of the line and frigates, large numbers of gun vessels, transports, and small fighting craft of every kind were being got ready. At Boulogne a huge camp of infantry, cavalry, and artillery was organised and trained. Every day operations of embarking and disembarking troops were carried out. In addition to this menacing behaviour, Napoleon's actions in

many ways during the months immediately following the Peace of Amiens were such that Britain on her part also continued her preparations for war, and resolved to hold Malta instead of giving it up to the Knights.

In fact, it was plain both to the French and British Governments that the peace could not be a lasting one until one side or the other recognised its inability to continue the struggle.

In May 1803 Napoleon informed the British Government that he would regard Britain's refusal to evacuate Malta as a *casus belli*. Thereupon war was formally declared by Great Britain. All vessels belonging to France found in the harbours of Great Britain were seized, while Napoleon, on the other hand, detained as prisoners of war all British subjects he could discover in France or Holland. Moreover, Hanover, at that time part of the British Empire, was invaded and taken. This was compensated for by the capture from the French of the island of St. Domingo, which was then definitely wrested from France, and its independence secured. St. Lucia and Tobago, as also the Dutch colonies of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, were also captured, the outbreak of war thus witnessing almost immediate extension of the over-the-sea possessions of Great Britain. On the seas around Europe no immediate actions of importance took place. Both sides were playing a waiting game. The French Fleets were not to be found on the open seas. It was to their interests to remain in their harbours under the protection of the guns of their fortifications and not to risk an engagement. The British Fleets therefore blockaded the various French ports where any French Fleets were known to be assembled, seeking to induce the French to come out and fight, or else to keep them locked up and useless. On our side constant watch, on

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their side constant preparation for the invasion. For nearly three years this wearying duty was imposed on our naval commanders. To Nelson fell the command of the Mediterranean and the consequent blockade of Toulon, while Cornwallis and Collingwood watched Brest and Rochefort; other Commanders were on the watch elsewhere, or made isolated attacks on anything they could find that flew the tricolour. In the Channel itself the French preparations were proceeding with celerity and on a magnificent scale. The main dépôt at Boulogne was like a wasp's nest, while at Ostend, Dunkirk, Calais, Amble-

teuse, and Etaples every effort was being made to provide transports and the means of embarkation. Nor were we content with maintaining outside the enemy's ports "that tremendous and sustained vigilance which reached its utmost tension in the years preceding Trafalgar." Nearer home, all conceivable means of defence were resorted to.

An immense number of small vessels, armed with one or two heavy guns, were stationed at the Nore, and at all assailable parts of the British coast; several large armed ships, too old and untrustworthy to join the British blockading Fleets on the open seas, were used as floating batteries to guard the various British ports; martello towers were erected along the shores; and an immense army of regulars, militia, and volunteers was preparing to obey the first call of danger. In the Channel and all along the French coast British cruisers were constantly on the watch, ready to attack any vessels that showed themselves outside the range of the French batteries.

The mental and physical strain on all concerned in the active defence of our Islands during this terribly anxious year of 1804 can hardly be realised without reading in full detail the accounts of our naval historians, but, terrible as was the strain from the declaration of war in May 1803 up to the end of 1804, still worse was in store. The action of Spain throughout the year had necessitated a vigilant watch. That country was virtually under the orders of Napoleon and had been so since 1796 by the Treaty of San Ildefonso. Consequently preparations to aid Napoleon's schemes were being vigorously carried on in Spanish ports, and in December 1804 she formally declared war, determining to stand or fall with France. Nelson, Cochrane, Orde, Calder, Collingwood, and our other sea-captains had now to double their vigilance, and to maintain the wearying blockade against even greater odds than before.

Never has the world seen such an exhibition of constancy and vigilance as was shown by our gallant sailors during the years immediately preceding Trafalgar. It

77 was the grim determination with which our BLOCKADE OF officers and men held on to their posts that FRENCH PORTS, ruined Napoleon's plans and saved our island. 1805.

It was those far distant storm-tossed ships on which Napoleon and his armies never looked that really stood between them and the Empire of the world. The great battle itself, magnificent as it was in the display of the

fighting qualities of the British sailor, was but the crown of the work that preceded it. Trafalgar was in reality a campaign and not a single contest; it was a duel lasting for nearly three years between the greatest military genius of the century, attempting to carry out naval combinations too much as if he were marshalling his troops on land, and a handful of British officers, whose skill, energy, endurance and tenacity foiled him in his purpose.

In March 1805 Nelson was driven off his cruising ground in front of Toulon by bad weather, and then the French Admiral immediately started to carry out the Emperor's plans. His orders were to sail to the West Indies as if to attack our various possessions on the other side of the Atlantic, and to induce Nelson's Fleet and as many British ships as possible to follow him. He was, however, to give Nelson the slip, and, as soon as the British Fleet was well out of the way, he was to sail back to the Spanish coast by an unusual route, pick up various French and Spanish ships, and appear off Boulogne, ready to escort the flotilla of invasion across the Channel, which would thus be without the protection of the chief British force.

"Let us only," wrote Napoleon, "be masters of the Strait for six hours, and we shall be masters of the world."

At first the ruse succeeded. Villeneuve got clear away to the West Indies, with Nelson in pursuit, and, owing to false information received by the British Admiral, had successfully given him the slip near those islands, and was on his way home to join with the other French Fleet at Brest, if possible. On his way to Brest, however, lay Sir Robert Calder, keeping watch over the Spanish port of Ferrol, with a recently strengthened Fleet of fifteen ships of the line. Though much inferior in numbers to Villeneuve, he boldly compelled an action, his orders being to prevent a junction between Ville-

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NELSON IN
THE WEST
INDIES, 1805.

neuve's Fleet and the Spanish Fleet at Ferrol at all costs. The action took place on 22nd July. Calder captured two ships, disabled two more, and thus gained a distinct advantage over Villeneuve before the day closed. But though the

79
FERROL,
1805.

French Admiral was forced to shelter at Vigo for some days, he did effect a junction with the Ferrol Fleet, and Calder failed in executing his orders. A court-martial was held on.

his conduct some time later, and he was severely reprimanded. At the same time it seems only fair to remark that he had gained a victory with an inferior force, and also that, had he not tackled Villeneuve as pluckily as he did, Villeneuve would have forced his way north and would have joined the French Fleet at Brest, in which case the position in the Channel for us would have been most critical.

The action, though small in itself and though not successful in its object, had a great result on the campaign, since Villeneuve was stopped and compelled to go southwards, where he was of no immediate use in carrying out Napoleon's plans.

On the other hand, Calder's instructions were definite, and had he carried them out it is possible that the action of the 22nd of July would have ended the campaign, and would have spared Britain the sacrifice of Nelson's life.

By this time Nelson, who had returned from the West Indies baffled in his search, was sailing to the Channel after spending some few days in Gibraltar. On reaching Cornwallis's Fleet off Ushant he left him some of his ships to help him in his blockade of Brest, and sailed on in the *Victory* for Britain.

Meanwhile Pitt had been successful in his negotiations with Russia and Austria; he had induced these two great military Powers to form a coalition against Napoleon, and they were now preparing to invade the territories of France.

The camp at Boulogne therefore had to be broken up, as the vast army of nearly 150,000 men assembled there was wanted on the frontiers, but still, though the army of invasion was dispersing, the flotilla and the Fleets remained. Villeneuve, after forming his junction with the Ferrol Fleet, had repaired to Cadiz, where he brushed aside Collingwood, who was blockading that port with three ships (Villeneuve now had twenty-nine), and entered the harbour. There his fleet was further increased by the Spanish ships that Collingwood had been blockading, making the Allied Fleet now considerably over thirty ships of the line. Collingwood, instead of running away with his little force of three against thirty, resumed his watch, and was reinforced on the 22nd August, that is, on the next day after Villeneuve's entrance into Cadiz, by four sail of the line, and on the 30th by some more under Calder. With this force Collingwood kept watch on Villeneuve, anxiously awaiting the arrival of Nelson.

Nelson, whose arrival in the Channel after his search in the

Atlantic, together with Calder's action off Ferrol and the formation of the coalition on the Continent against Napoleon, had frustrated the plans of invasion, left Portsmouth for the last time on the 15th September, having spent twenty-five days only on shore after his long weary watch at sea. He sailed in his old ship the *Victory*, and had with him one frigate. At Plymouth he was joined by two more ships, and on the 28th September he arrived off Cadiz, where Collingwood was still on the watch.

Nelson's Fleet now consisted of twenty-seven sail of the line, of which only three were 100 gun ships, the rest chiefly 74's, while opposed to him was a combined Fleet of eighteen French and fifteen Spanish. Most of the French ships were 74's, but in the Spanish squadron were the great *Santissima Trinidad* of 130 guns, two others of 112, and one of 100. In frigates Nelson's Fleet, as he himself complained, was lamentably deficient. He had four only to the enemy's seven. In addition to this actual superiority of numbers and size of the combined Fleets, Nelson had to reckon with the possibility, by no means so remote as some writers have thought, of the squadrons at Cartagena, Rochefort, and even at Brest giving the blockading squadrons the slip, and thus attacking him from the rear. For some time Nelson failed to induce Villeneuve to come out of harbour, but, at last, on the morning of the 19th, the enemy were seen to be leaving Cadiz and steering south. The main portion of Nelson's Fleet had been cruising some miles from Cadiz, near Cape St. Mary, the harbour itself being watched by some four or five ships, with which the main body kept in touch by means of the frigates.

Though Villeneuve was at length leaving Cadiz it was not through any desire to meet Nelson. He had received orders on the 27th of September to take the first opportunity of leaving that port, and to proceed to the neighbourhood of Naples to support Napoleon's forces in an attack on that town. But for some weeks he could not make up his mind to face his foe. Urged, however, by the fear of being superseded in his command, and finding his supplies failing him, he was now about to attempt to carry out Napoleon's orders, though without any desire to measure his strength against his opponent. But Nelson was not to be denied. It is true that the camp at Boulogne had been broken up, and that the French Fleet was apparently not about to attempt to gain possession of the

Channel, but as long as the combined French and Spanish Fleets existed so long was Britain menaced. Nelson's duty was therefore plain; it was nothing less than the destruction of the enemy's entire Fleet. On learning that the enemy were coming out and going south, the British Admiral at once steered for the Straits of Gibraltar in order to bar the entrance to the Mediterranean. On the morning of the 20th he was lying off Cape Spartel, being to the south of the enemy. On the morning of the 21st Villeneuve's Fleet came in sight, a magnificent force of thirty-three ships of the line and seven frigates, heading south. At 8 A.M. Villeneuve reversed his direction, knowing that he could not get through the Straits with the British Fleet blocking his passage, and wishing to be nearer Cadiz should a disaster occur. The wind was blowing

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TRAFALGAR,
1805.

lightly from the W.N.W., and the manœuvre of reversing his direction was badly carried out. The proper order of his ships was consequently upset, and instead of a long straight single line his position became an uneven curve, extending nearly 5 miles, with his ships at irregular intervals. Some of his ships were many hundred yards apart, some were almost abreast of each other. At about 10 or 11 o'clock he found it impossible to avoid a battle, for the British Fleet, drawn up in two rigid parallel straight lines about a mile apart, was making straight for the centre of his concave line. At noon, the *Victory* leading one of these lines, and the *Royal Sovereign*, Collingwood's flagship, leading the other, were close to the enemy's centre, and at ten minutes after noon the *Royal Sovereign*, being well ahead of the other ships, opened fire. By 1 o'clock the action had become general. The British ships, all bearing down on the enemy's centre, were quickly carrying out Nelson's tactics of breaking through the middle and concentrating all the vehemence of their attack on the enemy's centre and on the rear.

Two hours after the commencement of the battle the Allied Fleet was cut in two, and the rear portion was being destroyed. All this time the enemy's van was unable to get into action, so that their centre and rear were terribly raked by the whole of the British ships. By 2 o'clock fifteen of their ships had surrendered, and the crisis of the battle was over. But Nelson had been mortally wounded. At 1.25, when the battle was at its height, a shot from the mizzen-top of the *Redoubtable* had

hit him in the left shoulder, injuring his spine. He was carried below, and three hours afterwards, thanking God he had done his duty, the hero of Trafalgar passed away. By 5 o'clock the fight was over. Some of the French ships had fled, battered and crippled, to Cadiz; some others were in full flight anywhere, so long as it was somewhere out of reach of the British; and the rest were in the possession of the victors. The combined Fleet had practically ceased to exist, and with it passed away all fear of invasion.

Trafalgar was not only the greatest naval victory, it was the greatest and most momentous victory won either by land or sea during the whole of the Revolutionary War. No victory and no series of victories of Napoleon, however dazzling at the time, produced the same enduring effect upon Europe as this destruction of France's power at sea. But it must be remembered that the victory itself is not more worthy of admiration than the months of weary watching, search and chase which came before it. The battle was the crown of a long period of preparation and hardship, which has been briefly touched upon in the description of the blockade of the French ports.

Another important point to remember about this great campaign and final battle is the enormous influence that the personality of Nelson had in deciding the contest. It is a common thing for Britons to cherish the belief that Britons are, or were, braver than Frenchmen or Spaniards. The truth is that no bravery could have exceeded the bravery of the Frenchmen and Spaniards who fought at Trafalgar. Many of their ships lost nearly the half of their crews before they surrendered, and the amount of punishment which our enemies sustained before submitting would do credit to the most gallant fighters the world has produced. The victory was due more to the presence of Nelson at the head of affairs than to any other cause. He had an extraordinary power of inspiring the officers and men under him with the same devotion to duty that he himself felt, and all realised when fighting beneath his flag that there was no choice but death or victory. Fuller details of this memorable campaign, and fuller investigation into the causes and the results of the battle, must be read elsewhere.¹ Here it can only now be stated that the war on the high seas was virtually over.

A generation passed after Trafalgar before France again

¹ See H. Newbolt's "The Year of Trafalgar."

seriously threatened Britain at sea. The prospect of crushing the British Navy, so long as Britain had the means to equip a Navy, vanished. Napoleon, therefore, now tried to crush Britain's power by compelling every State on the Continent to exclude her commerce. Trafalgar forced him to impose his yoke upon all continental Europe, or to abandon the hope of conquering Great Britain.

After Nelson's death it became the duty of our seamen to search for any French ships that had escaped from Trafalgar, or which belonged to any of the French squadrons, such as that of Rochefort, that had not participated in the fight. Sir Richard Strachan with five ships of the line sighted and immediately chased this French squadron early in November off the coast of Spain. After some very brave fighting on the part of both the French and British, the former were compelled to surrender, their ships having been severely handled and their loss in men being almost four times that of the British. All four French ships were successfully brought into Plymouth, and under changed names entered the British Navy.

In the West Indies another British squadron under Sir John Duckworth intercepted a French squadron in the neighbourhood of Dominica, and, after a running fight of three hours, captured three French ships and drove the remainder on shore.

In January 1806 a Fleet with 7000 soldiers again captured Cape Town, which had been restored to the Dutch in accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Amiens in 1802, after the British capture of Cape Colony from the Dutch in 1795.

In the Mediterranean there were numerous small naval successes not individually important, but very exhausting in the aggregate to the enemy.

On the other hand, one considerable military success was achieved. Owing to Britain commanding the waters of the Mediterranean, Napoleon was unable to maintain his hold on Southern Italy, where the French General, Regnier, left unsupported, suffered defeat on the plains of Maida at the hands of Sir John Stuart.

PERIOD VIII.

BRITAIN V. NAPOLEON. WATERLOO.

We must now leave for a moment the actual fighting and consider how Napoleon attempted to retrieve Villeneuve's disaster at Trafalgar. He knew quite well that as long as Great Britain was unconquered he could not be the undisputed autocrat of Europe. He also knew that Great Britain never could be conquered until he had the command of the sea. This fact must have been forced upon his mind after the Battle of the Nile, and again after Acre. And yet, though we may be quite sure that his genius realised the vital importance of sea-power, we find him after Trafalgar still pursuing his schemes of conquest, and still burning to crush Britain by some means or other. Being no longer able to attack her maritime supremacy, he sought to crush her by his own supremacy on land, by excluding her commerce from the whole of the Continent, and by destroying her trade wherever he could lay hands on it. The struggle, therefore, became one of pure endurance. Commerce was the decisive element in the contest. Each nation, unassailable in its own element—Britain on sea and France on land—could only be brought to surrender by the exhaustion of its resources. Each might be said to be living on its capital of men or money. Up to 1805 an enormous amount of damage had been done to both combatants by numerous scattered cruisers, and British trade being so much larger than French had suffered proportionately. British merchant ships bound for various ports found it necessary to gather together in huge convoys, under the protection of a force adequate to meet and drive away any probable enemy. Or, again, fast frigates were assigned cruising grounds, and escorted merchant ships through their sphere of action till another cruising ground was reached. It will be readily understood that countless opportunities arose for single frigate actions and daring semi-piratical expeditions. But after October 1805 the British Fleets had established such a preponderance of power that this method of commerce-destroying became too dangerous to be carried out on a large scale by the French; the odds against them were too heavy.

Napoleon therefore set about destroying British commerce by another method. The short campaign of 1805 had over-

thrown the Austrian power, that of 1806 laid Prussia at his feet. Italy, Holland, practically all continental Europe, were under his heel, and Russia was only waiting its turn. It was therefore a propitious moment to carry out his dreams of conquering the sea by means of the land. In

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CONTINENTAL
SYSTEM,
1806.

November 1806 he issued the Berlin Decree, by which he declared that the British Isles were in a state of blockade; that France and her Allies, which, as we have shown, meant almost all Europe, were forbidden to trade with Britain;

that no ship, British or otherwise, that came from a British port was to enter any French port. In the following year, after the Battle of Friedland¹ and the consequent Peace of Tilsit, Napoleon's position in Europe became still stronger; but before this took place the British Government had issued in January an Order in Council, which prohibited neutral vessels from entering any port belonging to France or her Allies. Any vessel found doing so was to be confiscated with all its cargo. In November of the same year

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EUROPEAN
BLOCKADE,
1807.

another Order in Council was issued, by which all ports from which British commerce was excluded were considered to be blockaded, as if they actually were blockaded in the most strict and rigorous manner. Soon after this Napoleon

retorted with his Decrees of Milan and of the Tuileries, by which any ship that had ever been to a British port or had ever paid any duty to the British Government was to be treated as a hostile ship.

This commercial warfare had extraordinary results, very different from what the originator of the Continental System fondly hoped. His main purpose was frustrated;

85

BRITAIN
CONTROLS
THE TRADE
OF THE
WORLD,
1807-15.

a vast smuggling organisation arose, and the trade of Great Britain instead of being ruined was benefited by the arrangement, which, as she had absolute control of the sea, made it impossible to obtain Colonial produce except through her. The wars that arose between the United States and ourselves and the Peninsular

War are two other effects that were produced by this commercial warfare. There is no doubt that Napoleon had long entertained the design of upsetting the Governments

¹ 14th of June 1807.

both of Spain and Portugal, and his intention now was to do so, under the pretext of excluding British commerce from the Peninsula.

The war in the Peninsula lasted from 1808 to 1814, and requires no detailed description in a naval sketch. It must be noted, however, that without the supremacy of the British Navy the war could not have been carried on there at all. Wellington's chief base was Lisbon, when his army was entrenched behind the elaborate earth-works known as the Lines of Torres Vedras, and later at Santander, when the scene of operations was shifted to the north of Spain. The share of the British Navy in that campaign is best understood from the following extract from one of the Duke of Wellington's letters: "If any one wishes to know the history of this war, I will tell them that it is our maritime superiority gives me the power of maintaining my army while the enemy are unable to do so."

The unbounded influence which France had secured on the continent of Europe by the end of the year 1806 caused the British Government to fear lest Napoleon should also obtain possession of Constantinople by fair means or foul, so a force under Sir John Duckworth was detached from the Mediterranean squadron to be ready in case of necessity to act offensively against the Turks.

Pressure having been already brought to bear by Napoleon's agent, Sebastiani, on the Sultan to close the Bosphorus to the ships of our ally, Russia, it was considered in February 1807 that offensive action was necessary. Sir John Duckworth's squadron therefore proceeded to Constantinople, first forcing the passage of the Dardanelles, supposed to be very strongly fortified. The damage sustained by the British Fleet was trifling. Entering the Sea of Marmora, the Turkish Fleet was placed *hors de combat* with but a small additional loss. Unfortunately Sir John did not pursue his advantage, but retired through the Dardanelles on the 3rd March, sustaining severe losses on the way back.

The other naval event of this year is of far greater importance than the somewhat abortive action of the Dardanelles. It was feared in Britain, on very good grounds, that Napoleon would attempt to use the Danish and Swedish Fleets against us, and would also shut up the Sound against British com-

merce and navigation. We had no quarrel with Denmark herself, but it was determined by our Government to ask the Danes to hand over their Fleet to Great Britain for safe custody, to be retained till the close of the war with France. At the conclusion of the war with France the Danish Fleet was to be restored. This request was made by the British Government through Admiral Gambier, who had with him a powerful

Fleet, and a large military force under Lord Cathcart. The request was refused. Accordingly active measures were taken to secure the Danish Fleet, which, on its side, defended itself heroically against superior numbers. The expedition consisted of a series of skirmishes, the chief fighting being the bombardment of Copenhagen itself, which lasted four days, most of the actual fighting falling to the lot of the soldiers. The result was that the Danes gave up their ships, as well as a large quantity of naval stores. The fear, therefore, of the Danish Fleet being used against us was now done away with. Heligoland also was taken from Denmark to be used as a depôt for trading purposes with North Germany, and as a convenient station for a British Fleet watching the North Sea ports. It may be remarked, however, that the island did not prove as valuable as it was thought it would at the time of its capture, and in 1890 it was ceded to Germany in return for certain territorial rights in Africa.

It will be remembered that no mention has been made of the French Fleet at Brest, which had been blockaded so energetically by Cornwallis.¹ In February 1809 Lord Gambier was in command of the blockading squadron, but was driven from his station off Ushant by long-continued westerly gales. The Brest Fleet was thus enabled to elude his vigilance, and joining forces with some ships from L'Orient and Rochefort took up a position in the waters known as the Basque Roads.² This strong French squadron was under the command of Rear-Admiral Willaumez. It was this Admiral's intention to sail across to the West Indies, if only he could escape an action in home waters, in order to bring relief to the island of Martinique, which was in danger of being attacked by a powerful British force. The Admiralty,

87
COPENHAGEN, 1807.

88
BASQUE
ROADS,
1809.

¹ See p. 65.

² Close to the Isle of Aix, off the mouth of the river Charente.

being most anxious to stop this expedition at the outset, sent Lord Cochrane to assist the Admiral in command. Early in April the two British Admirals delivered their attack on the French Fleet, moored in three lines in a good defensive position, protected by a strong boom and by several batteries on the Isle of Aix. Owing chiefly to the dash and energy of Lord Cochrane, and to his use of fire-ships with which he broke through the huge boom, the French Fleet was almost entirely destroyed, with very slight loss on our side. There was now no French Fleet in existence. No Fleet actions took place after this between French and British, and Britain's sea-power, which after Trafalgar was supreme, became now absolute.

Though the French no longer had a regular Fleet of men-of-war, still they possessed in various ports isolated fighting ships, such as frigates and sloops, whose main business was to protect French merchant vessels, and to attack any British merchant ships that could be found unprotected.

Towards the end of October of the same year a British squadron caught a French force of seven merchant ships attempting to convoy supplies from Toulon to Barcelona. They were protected by four small armed vessels, but were under the partial shelter of shore batteries. **89**
ROSAS, 1809. On the 1st of November a dashing attack was made, chiefly in small boats, on this squadron in the Bay of Rosas, with the result that every French vessel was either burnt, captured, or brought off as a prize.

Meanwhile great attempts were being made to rebuild the French Navy. Antwerp was especially busy, and **90**
WALCHEREN, as that port was found insufficient for the Fleet 1809. that was being gradually collected in the West Scheldt, Napoleon induced his brother Louis, King of Holland, to make over to him the Dutch port of Flushing on the Isle of Walcheren. In July 1809 a large British force under command of Rear-Admiral Sir R. J. Strachan had set sail for the Scheldt with the object of doing as much damage as possible to the great docks and arsenals which Napoleon was building at Antwerp. The islands at the mouth of the river were quickly taken possession of, and Flushing itself to a great extent destroyed. But the enemy retreated to Antwerp, and the Earl of Chatham, who was in command of the troops, did not venture to attack this strong fortress. The island of Walcheren was evacuated in December,

many of our troops having died from the unhealthy nature of the position they had to occupy in the marshes. The expedition, though something was accomplished, cannot but be regarded as a failure, owing chiefly to Lord Chatham's want of vigorous action.

The year 1810 was uneventful in naval engagements on any large scale. There were, however, a large number of single frigate actions and attacks on merchantmen by small gun vessels. Typical of this kind of warfare was an action off the Isle of Rhé, when a British frigate recaptured a ship originally in the British Navy, which had been taken by the French some time previously.

91
RHÉ, 1810.

Our command of the sea enabled us in the Atlantic to reduce Martinique, Guadeloupe, and all the other French and Dutch West Indian Islands. In the East the island of Bourbon was taken with only a small loss. Mauritius, however, was still French, and served the enemy as a most valuable base in their attacks on our Indian trade. To reduce this island a large force of military was sent from India under General Abercrombie, who successfully forced the French to capitulate in December, but not until we had lost four fine frigates, in an earlier attack on the island.

92
MAURITIUS, 1810.

By this time the war had become one of cutting out expeditions, attacks on seaports, boat actions, and isolated frigate actions, in many of which great deeds

93
LISSA, 1811.

of daring were wrought by our sailors; these cannot be described here at length. A brilliant victory was gained off the island of Lissa by Captain Hoste with four frigates over a French Commodore with twice that number. Following up our success at Bourbon

94
MADAGASCAR, 1811.

and Mauritius an expedition to Madagascar¹ proved equally fortunate, and that large island came into our possession towards the end of the year. Further east the Navy had not been idle. Early in June the various divisions of an expeditionary force met off the island of Boompjes, which lies near the mouth of the Indiamayo on the coast of Java, with the object of capturing that island and its dependencies.

¹ Ceded to native ruler in 1818.

During the summer and autumn several operations were successfully carried out in that neighbourhood, culminating in the surrender of the Dutch possessions in the East Indies before the close of the war. They were all restored to Holland at the Peace of 1814.

95
JAVA, 1811.

In the Atlantic the most noteworthy incident during the year was the escape from the port of L'Orient of a small French squadron under Admiral Allemand, who, though sighted by various British ships at different times, remained at sea for three weeks, picking up a few small prizes. He then managed to sail into Brest, reinforcing the French ships in that port.

96
L'ORIENT,
1812.

It can easily be imagined that the War of Commerce carried on during the Napoleonic struggle had disastrous effects on the trade of those nations which were not actually at war with either France or Great Britain. The Continental system and the Orders in Council had indeed almost ruined the neutral trading nations. Of these America suffered more than any other. There were also other causes that stirred up much antagonism in the Republic of the West against the British Government, while added to actual causes was the sentiment of sympathy for France in gratitude for her help in the War of Independence. In June 1812 war, for which preparations had been going on some time in America, was openly declared by the United States. Though possessed of no Fleet of

97
SEVERAL
BRITISH
FRIGATES
TAKEN,
1812, 1813.

ships of the line, the Americans owned some well-built, well-armed, and in every way well-equipped frigates, sloops, and schooners, which were more than a match for the British ships of the same class. The American frigates¹ especially were bigger, carried more and heavier guns, and had better trained seamen, as fewer men had to be provided than in the case of the vast number of ships that Britain had to equip. Moreover, not a few of the men were British seamen, attracted by the better conditions they obtained under the Stars and Stripes. The war, therefore, naturally resolved itself into a series of single-ship actions, in the majority of which the Americans were successful. No less than sixteen of our warships and one thousand six hundred and seven British merchant ships, most of the

¹ *Vide* Notes.

latter rich prizes in comparison with the Yankee coasting boats, were captured by the Americans; our own flourishing trade with America disappeared, and the measures taken for quickly bringing the war to a successful termination were disgracefully inefficient. We have already stated that the Americans possessed many excellent seamen. But this is no real excuse for the many British reverses during the war. It is no excuse for the British Government of the day, though it is for the officers and men who were discomfited. The prime element of all naval strategy is the putting of superior force where it can be effectively employed. The Americans did not underrate their enemy, while the British began the war by doing so, and consequently sent against the foe old and weak ships with new or otherwise unsatisfactory crews. But though we lost several ships, the victory did not always remain with our cousins across the Atlantic. The affair of the *Shannon* and *Chesapeake* in Boston harbour is an excellent example of an unequal contest won by British pluck and endurance. The capture of the *Guerrière* and later of the *Java* by the American frigate *Constitution*, proved that British sailors were not wanting in determination, but that their ships were usually inferior in their armament.

The war with the Americans was altogether miserable and unsatisfactory; no very decisive actions were fought on land or sea, the chief result being the ruin of the trade with America. In this respect the United States suffered severely, for her commerce on the ocean, which during the twenty years before the outbreak of this war had been becoming annually more and more prosperous, almost disappeared, owing to the activity of our squadrons. Before it was agreed to terminate this wretched war we unfortunately suffered two disasters on the great

98
 RUIN OF
 AMERICAN
 TRADE,
 1812-14.

99
 LAKE CHAM-
 PLAIN, 1814.

lakes. The first on Lake Erie in September 1813, when a British squadron of six vessels struck to a more powerful American squadron, and the second on Lake Champlain in the following year, when eight British ships surrendered to a squadron of fourteen of the enemy. In December a peace was agreed upon at Ghent between the Americans and British, without any of the causes of the quarrel being decided. And yet the war had its lessons for

both sides which have not been lost. For the United States it acted as a confirmation of the new dignity and self respect of a young nationality; for Great Britain it revealed the strength and resources of its daughter in the West.

Meantime the Napoleonic war had for a short period been terminated by the great Battle of the Nations at Leipzig in October 1813, followed by the Emperor's retreat to the Rhine, and his subsequent abdication at Fontainebleau, after the brief campaign of the spring of 1814 in the west of France. The dethroned Emperor was sent to the island of Elba, Louis XVIII. was proclaimed, and the tranquillity of Europe seemed now assured. The war which had been devastating Europe for twelve years was brought to an end by the Peace of Vienna, by which the existing States of Europe came to an agreement as to their boundaries, and some new States were created, such as the kingdom of the Netherlands. Great Britain's possession of Malta, Heligoland, the Ionian Islands, the Cape of Good Hope, Mauritius, Ceylon, Trinidad, and Tobago, was confirmed, whilst the other West Indian Islands were restored to their former owners.

These matters were still in process of settlement when Napoleon's escape from Elba and landing near Cannes were announced to a startled world. Then came the Empire of a Hundred Days and the final overthrow of Napoleon at Waterloo, followed by his surrender to the captain of the *Bellerophon*, and his subsequent confinement on St. Helena.

Britain emerged from the struggle in a far different position from that in which she had entered it, a fact due in a very great measure to the command of the sea which she had gradually acquired. In 1763 France, Holland, and Spain all possessed powerful Navies; in 1815 these had ceased to exist, and those of Holland and Spain have never been restored. The result of our sea-power was that Great Britain could annex such colonies of these nations as she wished, and could take those strategical points which seemed desirable. Our Navy from this date took upon itself the rôle of the great naval police force of the world, and has maintained that rôle ever since for the benefit of the whole civilised world. Wherever there is a likelihood of a disturbance of the Pax Britannica, there a British man-of-war and some gunboats suddenly appear, and either keep or restore law, order, and true liberty.¹

¹ Cf. "Blake and Bey of Tunis," p. 12.

PERIOD IX.

THE CRIMEAN WAR.

During the colossal wars of which Europe was the scene between 1793 and 1815 the Moorish pirates, particularly those of Algiers, carried on their depredations with comparative impunity. On more than one occasion British Admirals, notably Sir John Jervis and Nelson, had checked their insolence, and a sharp lesson was read them at the conclusion of the American War, but much more required doing. In 1816 it was decided that piracy and slavery could no longer

100 be tolerated in the Mediterranean, and an expedition to bombard the Moorish stronghold of Algiers was arranged. A Dutch squadron assisted the British fleet under Lord Exmouth, who had a severe task before him. The bombardment was carried out in the face of a very obstinate resistance, worthy of a better cause. The Dey of Algiers, however, agreed to come to terms, surrendered his Christian slaves, and promised to give up piracy. Fourteen years later the same place was captured by the French, and has since been held by them with a firm grip. Peace was broken again in 1820, when a small British naval force reduced Mocha, in Arabia, to submission, after continued ill-treatment of British subjects. Four years later the Navy co-operated most usefully in the first Burmese war, ably assisting our military forces in the attack on Rangoon and the subsequent advance up the Irawadi.

In 1821 the Greek revolt against Turkey broke out after years of cruel oppression. Greece had been gradually conquered in the Middle Ages by the Turks, and by the year 1540 was almost entirely under their yoke. Every attempt made by the Greeks to regain their freedom, though carried on with great bravery, had only ended in worse oppression and in greater excesses of tyranny. In this, their final revolt, thousands of Greeks were slaughtered in Cyprus alone, while at Scio and many other places horrible massacres took place. For some five or six years Europe, though profoundly stirred by the heroic unequal struggle for independence on the part of the Greeks, did not openly assist either side. Much sympathy was felt for the Greeks, especially in Britain, many of whose

sons volunteered for service on the weaker side. Canning, who was then Prime Minister, did not wish to aid the Greeks by force of arms without the support of the chief European Powers. He was, however, determined not only to see that the Greeks had fair play, but also to maintain British sovereignty over the Ionian Islands, which had been made over to Britain after the Napoleonic war. In pursuance of this policy he brought about with great skill a plan of joint action between Great Britain, France, and Russia, called the Treaty of London, the object of which was to restore peace. But the Sultan of Turkey would have none of this Treaty, and it was consequently determined to compel him to accept the dictation of the three great Powers. The demands of the Powers were to the effect that an armistice was to be granted, and that some settlement was to be made, which meant that the independence of the Greeks was to be acknowledged, but the Turks would listen to no outside interference. The Sultan declared his fixed determination to subdue his rebellious Greek subjects. Thereupon the British and French Fleets in the Mediterranean were joined by a Russian Fleet. Vice-Admiral Sir Edward Codrington was nominated Commander-in-Chief of the Allied Fleets. The demands of the Christian Powers not

101
 NAVARINO,
 1827.

being granted, the Allied Fleets entered the Bay of Navarino in October 1827, where the Turkish and Egyptian Fleets were drawn up in a crescent formation, crowded together under the Turkish batteries on the shore. Strict orders were given that there was to be no firing unless the Turks began. When the British Admiral attempted to enter into communication with the Turkish Commander, the boat bearing his message was fired on, and in a few minutes a general engagement ensued. For some hours a terrific fire was kept up. The destruction of life on the Turkish side was very great, the estimates varying from 4000 to 7000. One after another the Ottoman ships were blown up, sunk, or driven ashore, until every armed ship was rendered useless. The loss of the Allied Fleets was about 600 men.

The Turks agreed some time after this to the terms of the Treaty, Greece was freed from the yoke of the Sultan, and a new Christian State was added to Europe. The formal acknowledgment by the Porte of the independence of Greece was made in 1829 by the Treaty of Adrianople.

The next affair in which the British Navy was concerned was also in connection with Turkey, but this time in defending her against the rebellious Mehemet Ali. This ambitious man had for a long time ruled Egypt for the Sultan as Viceroy, and, thinking himself stronger than his master, he determined to be independent of the Sultan, and rule Egypt autocratically. He also wished to add Syria to his dominions, and so sent an army thither under his son, Ibrahim Pasha, who was everywhere successful. The Sultan in these circumstances was about to ask the help of Russia, when Great Britain and other European Powers, who had no wish to see Russia in possession of any part of the Sultan's dominions, determined to bring Mehemet Ali to book.

Sir Robert Stopford, in command in the Mediterranean, posted a squadron to blockade Mehemet Ali's ships in Alexandria, while he himself proceeded to bombard Beyrout. During the attack on that place Commodore Charles Napier was directed to bombard Sidon, which, after a severe struggle, fell into our hands. The incident is worth noting, as steamers were used for the first time in warfare in the bombardment,

1840. Beyrout, Sidon, and other places having
102 been taken, Sir Robert proceeded to Acre, the
 ACRE, 1840. principal stronghold of the enemy. Though the
 forts were reputed to be very strong, the resistance made by the Egyptians was but feeble. After three or four hours—having lost 2000 killed owing largely to the explosion of a magazine, and 2000 prisoners—they evacuated the town, and Acre was occupied by the Allies.

The results of the capture of Acre were important. Ibrahim Pasha evacuated Syria, and Mehemet Ali gave up all his Fleet, while the Sultan accorded to him the hereditary possession of Egypt under payment of an annual tribute.

Meantime trouble had broken out in China. The East India Company had for many years carried on an extensive trade in tea, silk, and other goods with China, and since the beginning of the nineteenth century had developed a very profitable trade in opium. The Chinese authorities wished for many reasons to put down this opium traffic. In 1839 many thousand chests of opium were seized by them, British traders were molested, and compensation for injuries refused.

Sir Hugh Gough was placed in command of some 2000 British troops, and was supported by a powerful naval squadron

under the command of the Hon. G. Elliot, with orders to enforce freedom of trade for British subjects. The naval squadron began by destroying a large number of Chinese war junks in November 1839, and, with the loss of only one man, captured the islands of Chusan and the cities of Tinghai and Amoy in the following year.

In 1841 several forts on the Canton river were stormed, Pekin threatened, and the important island of Hong-Kong seized and occupied by our troops. In May of that year Canton surrendered to a combined naval and military force after great destruction had been caused to the badly disciplined Chinese troops. In the next year the naval detachment

103
CANTON,
1841.

ascended the Yang-tse-Kiang, captured Woosung and Shanghai, and anchored close to Nankin. Frightened by our gunboats, the Chinese sued for peace, agreed to open their five chief ports, viz., Amoy, Ningpo, Shanghai, Foochow, and Canton, to the commerce of the world, and surrendered the island of Hong-Kong to Great Britain, by the Treaty of Nankin, 1843.

104
SHANGHAI,
1842.

In other parts of the world besides China, British subjects had during these years been obliged to ask for protection, and the Navy naturally had come in for most of the work.

In 1841 there took place a very gallant action under Lieutenant de Courcy in the port of Cartagena, necessitated by the ill-treatment of the British. The suppression of piracy in different portions of the globe, more especially in Borneo, where Sir James Brooke was administering the northern portion of the island, gave rise to exciting naval adventures, which must be read elsewhere. In 1845 a combined French and British naval expedition under Admirals Lainé and Inglefield was sent to the entrance of the Rio de la Plata. All foreign commerce had been excluded from this great river contrary to treaty. France and Great Britain had therefore to enforce the treaty by arms. The object of the expedition was fulfilled, but not until some severe fighting had taken place between the combined squadrons and the insurgent troops of General Rosas. The chief fighting was at Punto Obligado and San Lorenzo. In 1848 and in 1851 two expeditions had to be made to protect British interests—the former to Nicaragua and the latter to Lagos on the west coast of Africa. Ten years later Lagos was incorporated in the Empire.

Farther India was the next country that forced itself on the attention of the Navy. As early as 1824 there had been a war with the Burmese, in which operations had been carried on by boat expeditions up the Irawadi, and in 1852 another war broke out, in which again the Navy rendered great assistance. Not only did the towns of Rangoon, Bassein, and Martaban suffer severely from bombardment by our ships, but naval detachments made their way up the Irawadi and the Salwen rivers, on whose waters they did valuable service, assisting especially in the capture of Pegu and Prome.

In the year 1852 certain disagreements with Russia in connection with various questions in the east of Europe assumed a very serious complexion. These disagreements were chiefly caused by Russia attempting to acquire such an influence at Constantinople as would virtually make her the mistress of the Turkish Empire. There were also other causes which helped to bring on the war that broke out two years later. The Emperor of the French also regarded his interests in the East as considerably affected by Russia's forward policy, and wished to ally himself with Great Britain. Matters were brought to a crisis by the destruction of a Turkish squadron at Sinope by the Russians in November 1853.

In the following March Britain and France formally declared war, a combined British and French Fleet under Admirals Dundas and Lyons and MM. Hamelin and Bruat being at the time in Kavarna Bay, off Varna, on the western coast of the Black Sea. The idea of the Allies was to destroy the Russian Fleet, bombard her various naval arsenals, and land a large military force to capture the Crimea, when the great stronghold of Sebastopol was to be razed to the ground. This plan necessitated two large expeditions—the one to the Black Sea, and the other to the Baltic. The Allied Fleet in the Black Sea was the first to get to work, being already on the spot.

Only a few days after the declaration of war the Fleets anchored off Odessa, the great southern grain port of Russia, and summoned it to surrender. The summons being disregarded, and a Flag of Truce having been fired on by the Russian batteries, the Fleet commenced a bombardment, and in a few hours the protecting forts were silenced and most of the place burnt down. Steamships, whose great handiness had been demonstrated at Sidon, were now coming into more general

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ODESSA,
1854.

use in warlike operations, and added to their nascent reputation by their behaviour in the bombardment of Odessa.

The Allies now proceeded to invade the Crimea, and the Fleets reconnoitred the approaches to Sebastopol. The Russians had stationed their Black Sea Fleet under the guns of the fortress for safety, but before long they sank their ships themselves in order to prevent their capture and to block the passage for the Allied Fleets. It must be remembered that the land forces of Britain and France had been first conveyed to Varna with the object of intercepting a Russian advance on Constantinople, but in June Austria, supported by Prussia, summoned the Czar to evacuate the Balkan Principalities, and threatened to declare war should the Russian troops cross the frontier of that portion of the Turkish Empire. The Turks, too, had made such a vigorous resistance on the Danube that there seemed no immediate prospect of the Russians being able to reach the Sultan's capital. The Allied forces were therefore free to pursue the plan of campaign mentioned above, and with that object in view the seat of war was transferred from Varna to Eupatoria.

In September the British military expedition arrived and landed in the Crimea, the battle of the Alma was fought on the 20th of that month, and on the 17th October, when the armies were making an assault on Sebastopol, the Fleets co-operated by a bombardment of the sea-forts. This had but little effect owing to the distance at which nearly all the ships engaged, while the batteries inflicted considerable damage on many of the vessels. This failure was succeeded in November by a terrible gale, in which the transports and storeships were almost totally wrecked, and vast quantities of provisions and military stores of all kinds lost. The Navy then in the Black Sea did not accomplish much in the year 1854; the causes of its want of success will be briefly touched on later.

To Sir Charles Napier had been entrusted the command of the Baltic Fleet of nineteen sail of the line, five screw frigates, and a large number of small steamers, which set sail on March. On arriving at Kronstadt the defences were found to be too strong for the guns of the Fleet to attack, and it was decided to attack the important fortress of Bomarsund, on the island of Aland. Ably assisted by a French naval and military force, the attack on this stronghold began in earnest

106

BOMARSUND,
1854.

on the 12th August, and before four days had passed Bomarsund was captured with only a small loss to the British force.

There still remained the great fortress of Sveaborg, whither the Fleet proceeded. The British Admiral, however, did not dare to attack either this stronghold or Kronstadt with the means at his disposal. Sir Charles Napier had

again and again urged the Admiralty to provide him with men, guns, gunboats, mortars, rifles, ammunition—in short, with everything that a Fleet requires. His Fleet was deficient at all points, hampered by the inefficiency of its “personnel” and its “matériel.” The French Emperor expressed his surprise and disappointment at the feebleness of our operations in the Baltic, in consequence of which the war was prolonged another year. This was due entirely to the inefficiency of the Navy at the time. The fact is simply that the British Navy had been allowed by the ministers who were responsible to fall into a most discreditable and dangerous state. From 1815 onwards it had been to a large extent neglected. Our command of the sea seemed so assured, our resources seemed so inexhaustible, that ministers took no care to maintain our Navy in that state of efficiency which alone enables us to preserve that command or to utilise those resources. As the Crimean War proceeded our deficiencies were gradually made good, and the tragic farce was enacted of parading 150 excellent new gunboats after the war was over, when they were no longer wanted, whereas Sir Charles Napier had not a single one with which to act when war broke out.

The uselessness of the British guns against stone casements had been proved in the badly planned attack of the Allied Fleets on Sebastopol in October, and in both the Black Sea and Baltic Fleets the power of the enemy’s shells on the wooden walls of Britain had been terribly demonstrated. Every effort was now made to make up the deficiencies from which our Navy was suffering, but it was late in the day. Nothing can be improvised at sea, and ships cannot be built in a month, still in the year 1855 the Navy undoubtedly rendered a better account of itself. In January of that year the disgraceful mismanagement of the war had led to the resignation of the ministry of Lord Aberdeen, and Lord Palmerston became the chief of the new Whig administration.

The siege of Sebastopol was pushed on with renewed vigour.

Supplies of all kinds were sent out in abundance, and a railway made from the harbour to the camp. A most successful expedition was made to the Sea of Azov, where it did an

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KERTCH,
1855.

enormous amount of damage to Russian granaries and storehouses, with which the shores of that sea were lined. The batteries of Kertch, which guarded the entrance to the sea, were blown up and abandoned, Genitchi was demolished, and every Russian boat on these waters sunk or burnt. Sebastopol fell on the 8th September, the Naval Brigade having rendered most valuable help on the operations on land, and the Allied military forces turned their attention to Kinburn. This strong fortress guarded the entrance to the river Boug, up which is the naval dockyard of Nikolaief. After a short bombardment it fell into the hands of the Allied Fleets on 17th October 1855.

It has already been remarked that steamships were used at Sidon in 1840 and again at Odessa in 1854, but it was at Kinburn in 1855 that steam-vessels were first employed on a really large scale. The operations directed against the defences of that fortress are remarkable also because they witnessed the employment for the first time of armoured vessels in warfare.

Both France and Great Britain entered on the campaign against Russia believing that sailing ships of the line would be of use against land batteries, but the experience of a few months on the scene of action proved that they had ceased to be of any practical value against the Russian forts and the guns in them. At Kinburn the French had three armoured floating batteries, and their appearance in action, following so quickly on the sudden development of steam power, marks the beginning of, perhaps, the greatest revolution which has ever been experienced in the science of naval warfare.

It is true, however, that the transition from wooden ships to ironclads was not so rapid as that from wind to steam. Roughly, one may say that sails and wood went out, and steam and iron came in, in 1855. But it was not till 1859 that the French launched their first armoured ship—*La Gloire*—a frigate of 36 guns; while England launched her first ironclad—*The Warrior*—of 9210 tons displacement, mounting 40 guns, towards the end of the year 1860.

In the Baltic Rear-Admiral the Hon. R. Dundas¹ had

¹ The Dundas with Lyons in the Black Sea was Vice-Admiral J. W. Deans Dundas, C.B.

been reinforced, and had also been provided with gunboats and mortars, with which a determined bombardment of Sveaborg was being carried on. After two days' incessant attacks with fire-shells the place had become one mass of roaring flame, and its end was quickly approaching. Besides the operations in the Black Sea and Baltic a small squadron was sent to the White Sea and a larger one to the Pacific. The former squadron, not being strong enough to attempt an attack on Archangel, successfully destroyed some Russian batteries on the island of Solovetski, at the entrance to the Gulf of Onega, and later bombarded the town of Kola. The latter squadron attempted an attack on Petropaulovski, the chief port of Kamtehatka, but the affair ended in a disastrous failure. The attacking force was British and French, and though the Russian batteries were silenced, the subsequent assault was mismanaged, 700 sailors and marines being caught in an ambush. This happened on 30th August 1854, and when a strong allied force appeared in 1855 the place was deserted and no resistance was offered. Meanwhile in the Gulf of Finland, Sveaborg had been almost destroyed, and with the approach of winter came a general desire for peace. Negotiations were opened by Russia, and in the following spring peace was signed, Russia agreeing to abolish her Black Sea Fleet and to dismantle the fortifications of Sebastopol.

Treaties, however, are only made to be broken, and in 1870-71, when France was at war with Germany, and Mr Gladstone was Prime Minister, Russia openly tore up her Crimean Treaty, refortified Sebastopol, and rebuilt her Black Sea Fleet. Since that time Russia, as well as France, has been year by year making great efforts to create a fine Navy; she suffered, however, a very severe defeat at the hands of the Japanese, under Admiral Togo, at the Battle of Tsushima in May 1905.

Though the efficiency of the Navy at the beginning of the war in the Crimea was not what it should have been, it must not be thought that the officers and men of the senior service did not do all that flesh and blood could do during those two years of fighting. Inefficient as the Royal Navy then was as to the quantity and quality of ships and guns, the officers and men were lacking only in numbers and in nothing else.

It was the Royal Navy that made the expedition to the

Crimea possible. It was the Royal Navy that relieved the military authorities of the difficult task of embarking and disembarking troops on a hostile shore, and which co-operated so gallantly in the first bombardment of Sebastopol, suffering considerable loss in consequence, though the results were poor. It was the Royal Navy that supplied and manned an invaluable siege train of its own, and sent some of its very finest officers and men into the trenches. Finally, the Royal Navy rendered the Army innumerable services, often of a very uninspiring kind, and sometimes without due recognition. There has, perhaps, never been a campaign in which whole-hearted co-operation between our two services has been more necessary, and seldom, if ever, has that co-operation been more complete in spite of terrible disadvantages.

Had our Navy been stronger at the commencement of the war how different would have been its history, and how different the position of Great Britain at its termination. France had relied on British naval power in conjunction with her own military forces to defeat the Russians in a very short time, but she was grievously disappointed. It is not far from the truth to state that, owing to this disappointment, owing to the discovery that Britain's Navy was not the supremely powerful weapon it was imagined to be, France was directly encouraged to commence those efforts for naval supremacy which have placed her second amongst Naval Powers.

In 1815 Great Britain was the only Sea Power of the world. France had been virtually driven off the waters of the globe, just as Spain and Portugal and, later, Holland had been. Britain's supremacy had, as we have seen in this sketch, been frequently challenged, but in 1815, as in 1713, she was supreme. Then came the disappointing experiences of the Crimean War, and the appreciation by Napoleon III. of the defects of the British Navy. Hence the policy of France as regards her Navy for a period of nearly half a century. The French Government, whether Imperial or Republican, adopted after the Crimean War a steady and determined policy of forming a Navy which one day might challenge Britain's proud position as mistress of the seas. It is not likely that this policy would have been entered on had not the eyes of Napoleon III. been opened to the possibility of its attainment by the inefficiency of our Navy at the commencement of the Crimean War. France and Russia then discovered that the British Navy of that day was not as power-

ful as it was supposed, and the idea of becoming superior to it began to take material shape soon after the conclusion of the war. Of late years, however, France has abandoned this policy, and the old enmity of France and England seems to be dying away and giving place to a far better mutual understanding than has ever existed before, while, on the other hand, Germany in European waters, and the United States and Japan in their respective spheres of interest, now command Fleets which would be most serious antagonists in an armed quarrel with those Powers.

PERIOD X.

AFTER THE CRIMEA.

During this final period Great Britain was not engaged in any purely maritime war of first-class importance. She was not called upon to fight any considerable action in the open seas; and the bombardments she was concerned in, though many were severe, were far less serious than those of Copenhagen or Sebastopol. It is, however, a period of great interest, for the developments in the manifold materials with which maritime war is conducted have been both rapid and extraordinary in character. Two other points are noteworthy in this closing period. The first is the great number of small operations that have been conducted in consequence of those police duties which we have taken upon ourselves all over the globe—duties which confer great benefits on the Empire, but which are too often utterly forgotten by all except those that perform them. The other is the strange fact that the Navy has become a land force as well as a sea force, frequently performing work for which it was never meant, doing what is purely army work, sometimes fighting hundreds of miles from the sea.

The peace which followed the winter of 1855-56 was not one of long duration for the Navy. Before the year 1856 drew to a close troubles with China in connection with trade and disregard of the British flag once more arose. Though the Chinese had suffered severely in our first dispute with them, and had been obliged to cede territory and open certain ports to trade, still they were very hostile to European traders, and frequently interfered with them. In October 1856 the Chinese authorities

seized a vessel called the *Arrow*, flying the British flag, whereupon the British Admiral in Chinese waters was appealed to for help. In a very short time all the forts on the Canton river were dismantled, the war junks on the river captured, and the Chinese troops repulsed wherever they could be met. In the spring of 1856. 1857 more damage was done, culminating in the victory of Fatshan on the 1st June.

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CANTON,
1856.

Active operations were now for some months interrupted by the needs of our countrymen in India, to whose aid troops and supplies destined for use in China were speedily despatched. Our Eastern Empire was about to fight for its life, for the Indian Mutiny, the most serious crisis for Britain since the Napoleonic wars, had already broken out at Meerut in May 1857. Three ships arriving at Hong-Kong received orders to proceed to Calcutta, and reached that port in August. A strong naval brigade was formed under Captain Peel, which distinguished itself at Lucknow, Cawnpur, and many other places. Of special use were the naval guns, which, as in South Africa forty years later, went very far towards saving a precarious situation. Indefatigable and resourceful as the sailors and officers of the Navy proved themselves to be during the Mutiny, yet the Navy does not exist for that kind of work, and the fact that the army so frequently calls for help from the senior service tends to diminish the efficiency of the service for duties more peculiarly its own.

By the end of the year British rule was thoroughly restored in India, and both Russia and France had joined us in the attempt to coerce China into treating Europeans with deference. A combined attack was therefore made on Canton. The attack was successful. The forts protecting the city were blown up, the guns destroyed, and the city occupied by European troops. But Canton is not China, and other parts of the enormous Chinese Empire had to be reduced before the Government would accede to our demands.

110
CANTON,
1857.

In the northern part of the Celestial Empire operations were successfully carried on in the Peiho river, the forts of Tientsin¹ and Taku surrendering to a British Naval Brigade early in

¹ Tientsin is built at the junction of the Grand Canal and the Peiho river, and is the port of Peking, which is 80 miles inland. Taku is at the mouth of the Peiho, which flows into the Gulf of Pechili.

1858. But, as has been so often the case with the Chinese, they forcibly prevented British representatives from carrying on the duties of their office, so that both the British and French Ministers had to appeal to the Admiral¹ to support them by force. It was in this second attempt in June 1859 to make the Chinese keep to their engagements that Captain Tatnall, the commander of an American cruiser called the *Toeywan*, lying outside the bar, brought a boat through the shell storm to offer his steam launch to the British Admiral for conveying the wounded out of danger. While he was making this generous offer, which was gratefully accepted, his men, throwing the laws of neutrality to the wind, turned to with a will to assist the British gunners with a short-handed gun. In spite of this valuable assistance the British were forced to retreat owing to the inadequacy of our force for the work it had in hand, and a daring attempt was then made to carry the forts by land. This, too, was beaten off, and the Chinese were left in possession of the forts, while three gunboats and more than 300 men was the price paid by the attackers. It was Captain Tatnall to whom is attributed the remark made on this occasion, which has since become a proverb—"Blood," said he, "is thicker than water."

In 1860 this disaster was retrieved by the capture of the Taku Forts in August by an allied force of British and French troops under General Sir Hope Grant and General de Montauban, aided by Admiral Hope's gunboats. In October the city of Peking was occupied, and a treaty signed, which was honourably kept until the Boxer outbreak of 1900.

Two years after this troubles arose with the other great Power of the Far East, Japan, in which country British subjects were also frequently maltreated. Japan had been visited as early as 1612 by English traders, the Portuguese having preceded them by almost a century. With the introduction of the Roman Catholic missionaries from Portugal and Spain in the seventeenth century the Japanese took alarm, misunderstanding the Pope's claim to universal sovereignty. The result was the closing of the country to all foreigners for over 200 years. In 1853, however, owing to an American expedition, Japan once more opened its shores to foreign trade, but the people themselves did not cultivate amicable relations with the foreign traders.

¹ Rear-Admiral Hope.

In 1862 the British Fleet in the Far East was ordered to proceed to Kagosima, the principal port in the dominions of the Prince of Satsuma, in whose territories a violent outrage had been perpetrated on British subjects, and demand satisfaction. No satisfaction being given, the harbour and fortress were successfully bombarded, but still the Japanese Government declined to accede to the demands of the British, and closed their waters to all foreigners. France, Holland, and the United States now joined Great Britain in her attempt to

open up Japan to foreign influence, and a combined attack took place on Shimonoseki, the chief Japanese stronghold in the south-west of SHIMONOSEKI, 111 Hondo Island. The attack on this place was 1864. completely successful, the forts were demolished, and their defenders fled after desultory fighting. The Japanese authorities sued for peace, and agreed to the demands of the Western Powers, who had fought for freedom of intercourse and fair treatment. Since that time Japan has made strides in civilisation unequalled by any country in the history of the world.

For nearly twenty years Great Britain's Navy was not engaged in any action of importance. Individual ships had work to do in suppressing the slave trade, in preventing gun-running, and in performing the general police work of the seas. As has been hinted at the beginning of this section, the duty of policing the sea led often to serious though small conflicts—serious because of the frequent loss of life, small because of the few ships employed in any one operation. The policing of the sea is one of the great facts of modern civilisation, yet one which is least noticed, because it is taken by everyone as a matter of course. There are many duties connected with it—the suppression of the slave trade and of piracy, the protection of European residents in semi-civilised ports, and of white traders on many an unfrequented coast devoid of any settled government. These duties are of comparatively recent growth. In the ancient world the ocean did not count. The world was the Mediterranean and the lands around it, and the highway of the world was that single sea. Even so it can hardly be said to have been policed, though for a time Pompey suppressed piracy, which sprang up again after his death. Byzantine romances and mediæval history are full of tales of piracy and of the dangers of an unpoliced sea. Even less

than one hundred years ago Algiers was a nest of pirates (1816).

But the ancient idea of the sea as a separator of one land from another gradually gave way to the idea of the sea as a connecting link between one land and another. The known world, instead of being Western Europe and the fringe of North Africa separated by the waters of the Mediterranean, had become five enormous continents surrounded by an immense ocean, whose waters were the means of communication between them, and by degrees this ocean began to be traversed first by sailing-ships and then by steamers with a security greater than that of the mail coaches of the century before. That security was due in the first instance, and for many years exclusively, to the British Navy. Let us by all means remember Nelson and the hundreds of other brave seamen whose names are handed down to us, but let us also remember the hundreds whose lives were lost in the performance of this police work. It was the British Navy, and no other, that created and for years maintained alone this noble tradition; and even when other Navies, chiefly for many years that of France, took part in this duty it was the British Navy still that did most of the work. By degrees other Navies will take a greater share, for the British Navy has no claim or title to a monopoly in such a work as this. It welcomes rivals and comrades, be they French, German, American, or Japanese, in the tasks which it performs for the benefit of all mankind. There are many who dimly perceive that it was the British Navy which was mainly responsible for preserving some balance of power in Europe from 1792 to 1815, but they forget that since 1815 the British Navy has by its police work opened, and kept open, the whole ocean to the navigation of all the civilised nations of the world, and thus has done more than any other one force to make possible the growth of civilisation, the spread of trade, the increase of over-the-sea emigration, which have in less than a century, together with the marvellous discoveries and inventions of science, transformed the world and brought its most distant parts nearer together than were, a hundred years ago, the outer limits of Europe.

In 1878, during the Russo-Turkish War, it was necessary to make a considerable display of force in the Dardanelles to intimate to Russia that she would not be allowed to occupy Constantinople without first reckoning with Great Britain; and

in 1880, after the war was over, when Turkey refused to obey the finding of the Berlin Conference that she should hand Dulcigno over to Montenegro and give an improved frontier to Greece, it was again necessary to make a combined naval demonstration of the Great Powers of Europe off the Albanian coast. In both instances the desired result was obtained without a shot being fired or a man landed.

In 1882 an Egyptian officer named Arabi headed a movement of discontented natives against the Turkish authority, as represented by the Khedive, with the object of securing the chief power in Egypt for himself and his followers. Egypt had for some time been administered under a system of dual control by France and Britain in the name of the Khedive, who was nominally subject to the Sultan, and it was therefore incumbent on both these Powers to maintain order and assert the authority of the Khedive.

The French, however, refused to take any action, so the British Fleet, under Sir Beauchamp Seymour, proceeded to bombard Alexandria, of which city Arabi had taken possession, and where he had securely installed himself. The bombardment was carried out most effectively, some of the small gunboats, especially the *Condor* under Lord Charles Beresford, doing wonderful execution. In a few hours all the enemy's guns were silenced and the forts demolished.

Since that day the British Navy has kept up its reputation for bravery almost as much by its performances on land as by sea. On the west coast of Africa, on the Nile, at Suakin, at Zanzibar, and in Crete the British blue-jackets have nobly done their duty, adding lustre to the flag, whose honour they have always defended in a manner worthy of their great reputation. More recently still, at Ladysmith, the men of the White Ensign, whether with the beleaguered garrison under Sir George White or with the relieving force under General Buller, played so decisive a part with their naval guns that it is questionable if success could have been attained without them. Within a short time after these events a Naval Brigade was busy in China fighting at Taku, Tientsin, and Peking, where men from Admiral Seymour's Fleet gained for themselves the admiration of the representatives of the Great Powers.

The command of the sea which Great Britain now holds may be said to extend not only over the oceans of the globe, but up

the great river highways of the Continents. Thus, Khartoum, though many hundreds of miles from the ocean, may not inaptly be said to feel Britain's sea-power.

It is not within the scope of this sketch to discuss the present strength of the British Navy, or to compare with it the Fleets of rival Powers; let us simply express the firm belief that in the present temper of men's minds, and with Europe bristling with armed men, the naval supremacy of Great Britain is absolutely essential to our safety, and is also the very best guarantee for the peace of the world. The command of the sea, by which is meant strategic freedom of maritime movement, both military and commercial, is not to be regarded by us in these islands merely as an advantage or a luxury; it is, on the other hand, *an absolute necessity to our life as a nation, and to our existence as individuals*, and this belief is surely justified by the facts of history. The main lesson to be learnt from studying our naval history is, that the maintenance of the Pax Britannica depends not on alliances with other Powers, nor on friendly relations with other peoples, but on the unquestionable superiority of the British Fleet to any possible combination. The Fleet is our one and only bulwark, and on it our existence as a nation rests. Nor has the day yet arrived when there is no likelihood of war, or when war is to be avoided at any price. The wealthy man who cares only for material prosperity, and the cultivated theorist who forgets that nothing can atone for the loss of the virile fighting virtues, both overlook the fact that, though war is an evil, an inglorious or unjustifiable peace is a worse evil. Let us therefore individually see to it that we do what in us lies to maintain our glorious birthright—the Sovereignty of the Seas, and let us as a nation take good care that as long as the world shall last Britain shall rule the waves.

“Here, and here did England help me,
How can I help England—say!”

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NOTES.

ADMIRAL.

The first use of the word Admiral that can be traced in English occurs about 1286, soon after the return of the Crusaders from the Holy Wars. The term was therefore probably imported from the East, where the word was in use amongst the Saracens from a very early date. It is probably connected with *Amir* or *Emir*, and means a Captain-General of the forces, whether on sea or land.

The word also signifies the most considerable ships in the squadron, *i.e.*, the Flagship. The Spanish used the words *Capitana* and *Almirante* in this sense.

LORD HIGH ADMIRAL.

In Edward III.'s days there were usually two admirals in commission, styled the Admiral of the North and Admiral of the West. If the command of both Fleets was centred in one person he became Lord High Admiral, or, as he was officially called, Admiral of England. By the time of Henry VIII. the title Lord High Admiral had come into use to designate the Commander-in-Chief of the Navy. At the time of the Armada Lord Charles Howard, afterwards created Earl of Nottingham, was Lord High Admiral. For some years the office was in abeyance, but in 1660 Charles II. revived the title in favour of his brother, Prince James, Duke of York. There is now no Lord High Admiral of Great Britain; the last was William IV.—the sailor King—who received the appointment in 1827 when Duke of Clarence, and held it till his death in 1837. The Navy is now managed by the LORDS COMMISSIONERS FOR EXECUTING THE OFFICE OF LORD HIGH ADMIRAL OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, commonly called The Admiralty.

The FIRST LORD, who has a seat in the Cabinet, has for many years been a Civil Administrator, and not an Executive Flag Officer. The FIRST SEA LORD is the title the Senior Executive Flag Officer, who is usually an Admiral of the Fleet. These two with six others form the body of Lords Commissioners.

ASSIENTO.

The Assiento is the name given to the contract for supplying the Spanish Colonies in the Western Hemisphere with slaves. This right was surrendered to Britain by the terms of the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713, but when war broke out with Spain in 1718 Britain naturally lost the right. It was, however, renewed in 1725, and was again restored in 1748 at the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

FRIGATE.

This class of vessel came into use with the Seven Years' War, 1756-63. Before that time the British Navy had nothing between the cramped, clumsy 44-gun two-deckers of 850 tons and the weakling 20-gun ships—a pigny with a pop-gun armament. The new vessels carried their armament on one deck, and were built for cruising

at a high speed. They carried, when first introduced, twenty-eight, thirty-two, or thirty-six guns, but gradually any ship mounting from twenty-eight to forty-eight guns was so designated. Anything over forty-eight guns was no longer regarded as a frigate, but since the smallest ship classed as a "line-of-battle ship" carried sixty-four guns, all ships in the intermediate position were known by the number of their guns, viz., the *Leanders* 50, the *Augusta* 60, and so on.

THE FAMILY COMPACT

Is the name applied to various treaties between the Bourbon Kings of Spain and France during the eighteenth century. The first Compact began in 1733, and, being especially directed against British trade, led to the war between Spain and Britain that broke out in 1739. The more famous Compact was in 1761, and its object was to associate Spain with France in the Seven Years' War.

THE HOWARDS.

Sir John Howard, who was an Admiral in the days of Edward III., and who fought at the Battle of Sluys in 1340, was the ancestor of one of the most distinguished of British Naval and Noble families. His great great-grandson was John Howard, who was created Duke of Norfolk when the Mowbray family—Dukes of Norfolk—became extinct. He was killed at the Battle of Bosworth Field in 1485. His son, Thomas, became, at the same time, Earl of Surrey, and subsequently the second Duke of Norfolk of the Howard house. This Duke married twice. By his first wife he had two sons, Thomas and Edward. Both of these distinguished themselves in the wars against the French, especially at sea, and Lord Edward was made Lord High Admiral in 1512. He was killed in a fight off Brest, and his elder brother, Thomas, was then appointed to that post. He succeeded in clearing the French off the narrow seas, and then helped to crush the Scots at Flodden Field. He became the third Duke of Norfolk and died in 1554. His son, the fourth Duke, was beheaded in 1572. The fourth Duke's second son, Thomas, was the Lord Thomas Howard under whom Sir Richard Grenville served. He commanded *The Golden Lion* in the fight against the Armada, was created Earl of Suffolk, and died in 1626. It has been stated above that the second Duke of Norfolk married twice. By his second wife he had a son, named William, who was created Baron Howard of Effingham. His eldest son was Lord Charles Howard of Effingham, Lord High Admiral, who was the Commander-in-Chief at the Armada. He was created Earl of Nottingham after the Cadiz expedition, and died in 1624. He was, therefore, the grandson of Thomas, the second Duke of Norfolk, while his contemporary and subordinate commander, Lord Thomas Howard, both of whom are mentioned in the Sketch of Naval History, was the great-grandson of the same Duke.

THE TORRINGTONS AND THE BYNGS.

Admiral Sir George Byng served under Sir George Rooke at the battle of Beachy Head in 1690, and was present at the destruction of the Spanish ships in Vigo Bay in 1702. He also served under Sir Cloudesley Shovel, and was knighted for his bravery at the battle of Malaga in 1704. He frustrated the Pretender's expedition to Scotland in 1707. In 1721 he was raised to the peerage under the title of Viscount Torrington, and in 1727 became First Lord of the Admiralty, which post he held till his death in 1733.

Admiral the Hon. John Byng was the fourth son of the above. He was shot in 1757 after the unfortunate affair of Minorca.

Admiral Arthur Herbert commanded the Fleet with which William of Orange sailed to England, and engaged the French Fleet in Bantry Bay in 1689. He was created Earl of Torrington by William III. after the battle of Beachy Head in 1690. He died in 1716, and the title was dormant till 1721 as above.

PRINCE RUPERT,

After his defeat at Marston Moor (1644) and the surrender of Bristol (1645), was deprived by Charles I. of his military command. In 1648 he was given command of the Royalist Fleet, but suffered a crushing defeat in 1651 at the hands of Blake.

He escaped with a few ships to the West Indies, whence he took refuge in France. After the restoration he again obtained high Naval command, and did good service under Monk in the war against the Dutch, 1666.

TONNAGE.

This word when applied to ships is used in different ways. When talking of warships, tonnage means displacement, that is to say, the weight of water displaced by the ship, which is, of course, the same thing as the actual weight of the ship. When talking of merchant vessels, it means either gross or net tonnage. Gross tonnage expresses the total cubical interior space of a vessel; net tonnage expresses the cubical space actually available for the purposes of carrying merchandise. In the case of warships, the word *ton*, therefore, means a weight of 20 cwt.; in the case of merchant vessels it means a cubic space of 40 cubic feet.

THE NAVIGATION ACTS.

A code of maritime laws is attributed to Richard I. (1194), and further enactments were made by Richard II. in 1381. In 1651 the Parliament passed the famous Navigation Laws mentioned in the text, the principle of which was confirmed by Charles II. in 1660. This act was followed by many others of a similar tenor from time to time, which were consolidated in the reign of William IV. (1833). These Acts were repealed in whole or part in 1849 after much opposition, and British ports were thrown open to all nations.

WEATHER-GAUGE

Is a nautical term used in the days of sailing-ships to express the idea of obtaining a position to the windward of the enemy. The Fleet having the weather-gauge was in a position of superiority, as it could bear down upon the enemy or keep away as it liked. There was often a good deal of manœuvring to obtain this position.

THE SMYRNA FLEET.

In time of peace merchant ships can cross the oceans when and how they choose, but in time of war, when two maritime powers are fighting for the command of the sea, it is essential that adequate protection should be given to those ships that trade between either of the countries that is at war and a distant port.

The system of protection usually adopted in the naval wars of the past was the convoy system. A number of merchantmen were collected in some convenient harbour, and a small squadron of warships sailed with them to their destination. In the seventeenth century Holland had a large trade with the Mediterranean, and during our wars with that country fleets of Dutch merchantmen were frequently convoyed to and from Smyrna in Asia Minor. This fleet was called the Smyrna Fleet, and was an object of attack to the English Fleet. Later on, when the Dutch wars were over, and when in the contest with France England and Holland were allies, the phrase was still used, and meant not only Dutch but also English ships which traded with the Levant. Thus the Smyrna Fleet of 1664, attacked off Cadiz by Sir Thomas Allin, was a Dutch fleet pure and simple. So also the Smyrna Fleet of 1672, attacked in the Channel by Sir Robert Holmes. On the other hand, the huge flotilla attacked by Tourville in 1693, always spoken of as the Smyrna Fleet, was a collection of about 400 merchantmen, consisting of English, Dutch, German, Danish and Swedish ships, convoyed by an English force under Sir George Rooke of fifteen men-of-war, and a Dutch force under Van der Goes of eight men-of-war.

THE PLATE FLEET.

This phrase refers to the Spanish treasure ships that brought to Spain the rich cargoes from her newly-discovered possessions in the New World. This cargo consisted chiefly of silver (*la plata*) and other precious metals; hence the English gave these Fleets the above name, though the Spaniards themselves did not use the term. Over a long

period of years two Spanish Fleets used to sail annually, one trading to San Juan de Ulua, the port for the trade of Mexico, and the other for Cartagena for the trade of the Spanish Main. On the homeward journey the Fleet sailing from Cartagena called at Nombre de Dios to pick up the treasure brought overland from Peru, and then usually joined company with the Fleet from Mexico.

For full details of the Plate Fleets see J. S. Corbett's *Drake and the Tudor Navy*.

THE SPANISH MAIN.

The Spanish Main is a term frequently applied in rather a vague manner to the waters of the Atlantic Ocean that wash the shores of the West Indian Islands, and the mainland from the Cape of Florida to the mouth of the Orinoco. The term should, however, be applied to a certain portion of the mainland of the continent, and not to the sea. The waters of that neighbourhood should be called the Gulf of Mexico, and the Caribbean Sea. In the middle of the sixteenth century, and in the days of Drake and Hawkins, the Spanish possessions in America, called the Spanish Indies, were divided into four main governments: Peru, on the South Pacific Coast, whose capital was Lima; New Spain, encircling the Gulf of Mexico, whose capital, Vera Cruz, was some fifteen miles to the north of its harbour, San Juan de Ulua; Guatemala, which included the greater part of Central America as far as the Province of Darien, whose chief port was Nombre de Dios; and, finally, the extensive Government of Española, which consisted of, firstly, all the West Indian Islands in the power of Spain, and, secondly, the mainland on the northern coast of South America from the confines of the Government of Guatemala to the mouth of the Orinoco. This the Spaniards called Tierra Firme, and this is the true Spanish Main. The chief city of government was San Domingo, on the island of that name, while Cartagena was the capital of the mainland portion of the government.

CHAPTER II.

BRITISH DOMINIONS BEYOND THE SEAS.

<i>St. George's Day</i>	.	.	.	<i>23rd April.</i>
<i>St. Andrew's Day</i>	.	.	.	<i>30th November.</i>
<i>St. Patrick's Day</i>	.	.	.	<i>17th March.</i>
<i>St. David's Day</i>	.	.	.	<i>1st March.</i>
<i>Empire Day</i>	.	.	.	<i>24th May.</i>
<i>Armada</i>	.	.	.	<i>21st July 1588.</i>
<i>Trafalgar</i>	.	.	.	<i>21st October 1805.</i>
<i>Waterloo</i>	.	.	.	<i>18th June 1815.</i>

CHAPTER II.

BRITISH DOMINIONS BEYOND THE SEAS.

“What do they know of England who only England know?”

THE Colonies and Dependencies of Great Britain embrace nearly one-fifth of the land surface of the globe, and amount to more than ninety times the area of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

The Colonies proper form three classes:—

1. The *Crown Colonies*, which are entirely controlled by the Home Government, usually represented by a governor of the colony.

2. Those possessing *Representative Institutions*, in which the Crown has no more than a veto on legislation, although the Home Government retains the control of public officers.

3. Those possessing *Responsible Government* in which the Home Government has no control over public officers, though the Crown appoints the governor and retains a veto on legislation.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN EUROPE.

GIBRALTAR

Is a very strongly fortified rock, rising to a height of 1400 feet, guarding the narrow strait between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean. It is 32 miles distant from Cape Spartel, in Africa, and is situated at the southern end of a narrow sandy isthmus connecting it with the mainland of Spain.

Its position and its immense natural strength, which has been much increased by skilful fortification, render it of enormous strategical value. It is commonly said to "command" the route to Suez and India, and the entrance to the Mediterranean. Properly speaking, a fort can only "command" the waters within effective range of its own guns ; Gibraltar's position and strength as a naval base is such that it enables the Fleet to command the Straits, and it is in this sense that the phrase must be understood

Gibraltar is also of great value as a commercial port of call and coaling station. It has a garrison of 5000 soldiers, in addition to a civilian population of 20,000. Extensive works are now in progress for extending the existing mole and for completing the dockyards, which will still further increase its great value to Britain.

It was captured from Spain in 1704, during the war of the Spanish Succession, by a force under Sir George Rooke and Sir Cloudesley Shovel, and has since that time been frequently attacked. In the great war that ended with the Peace of Versailles (September 1783) it bore a memorable siege for three years and two hundred and eight days, during which the Spanish and French assailed it with many thousands of troops. Ships of the line, floating batteries, and all kinds of engines of war were brought to bear upon the fortress. It was heroically defended by the garrison under Governor Elliot, whose defence was much assisted by Rodney's victory off Cape St. Vincent (1780). Much needed relief in the matter of stores was afforded by a fleet under Admiral Derby in the spring of 1781. In November 1781, and again in September 1782, terrific bombardments took place, but in October 1782 the relief of the fortress was effected in a most brilliant manner by a Fleet under Lord Howe. The blockade finally ceased in February 1783.

Gibraltar is a Crown Colony. The Governor is in command of the garrison, and exercises all executive and legislative power. There is no Council.

MALTA,

With the islands of **Gozo** and **Comino**, is situated in the Mediterranean between Sicily and Africa. The three islands have an area of 117 square miles, of which $91\frac{1}{2}$ square miles are in Malta. The land is highly cultivated, the population

growing the usual sub-tropical fruits as well as cereals. Lace-making and employment with the shipping occupies a large number of the population, which is estimated at over 215,000.

Valetta, which is very strongly fortified, is the chief town, and is of very great strategic value, guarding one of the finest harbours in the world, though it is rather small for the demands made on it. Our Fleet has rather outgrown it, and it is partly for this reason that Gibraltar is being improved. It is the headquarters and repairing station of the British Fleet in the Mediterranean, and there is also an extensive arsenal, coaling station, and dockyard.

Commercially Malta is of vast importance to us, as well as from a strategic point of view, since it serves as a depôt for collecting and distributing goods, and hence has an enormous transit trade. Its position half-way between Gibraltar and Port Said renders it a most important port of call, and enables our Fleet to guard the route to India. A large garrison is always kept on the island, while the harbour is seldom without a British man-of-war. The fortifications of Valetta are not only guardians of the sea-approaches, but also protect the town from the land side, making this important position practically impregnable.

Malta, after many vicissitudes, was granted to the Knights of St. John by Charles V. of Spain in 1530, who continued to hold it until 1798, when it was seized by Napoleon on his expedition to Egypt. Two years later it surrendered to a British force, whose occupation of it was confirmed by the Treaty of Paris in 1814.

Malta is a Crown Colony. The Governor is assisted by an Executive Council and a Council of Government, consisting partly of officials and partly of elected members. The Maltese have therefore to some extent a voice in the government of the island.

THE CHANNEL ISLANDS

Are a group off the coast of Normandy, on the western side of the Cherbourg promontory. St. Heliers, the capital of Jersey, is about 40 miles from St. Malo and 120 from Southampton. There are a large number of islands in the group, some of which are mere rocks, and many of which are uninhabited; the chief are **Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, Sark**, and

Herm. The total area is 75 square miles, with a population of 100,000, who are engaged in trading, fishing and horticulture. Alderney possesses many natural advantages strategically, and with fortifications might be rendered a very strong naval and military station.

The Channel Islands were an appanage of the Duchy of Normandy, and were united to the Crown of England under William the Conqueror. Since then, though retaining to a great extent the language, laws, and customs of Normandy, they have always remained firm and loyal in their allegiance to Britain.

The islands have frequently been attacked by the French in our wars with them, the most important attempt having been made in 1781.

Hundreds of thousands of pounds have been spent in the attempt to fortify Braye, in Alderney, but to little purpose, as modern artillery could shell it from the shores of France. Perhaps the best use the waters round the Channel Islands could be put to would be to use the area between Guernsey and Sark as a base of operations for a torpedo flotilla.

The government of the Channel Islands is peculiar and interesting. In purely local matters the islands are self-governing. The business of legislation is carried on by a body called the States, which is in some respects a popular assembly. There is no Upper and Lower House, but the States sitting in Jersey are under an official called the Bailiff, and have nothing to do with the other islands. In Guernsey sits another States house, in whose control are the rest of the islands. Jersey and Guernsey each have their own Lieutenant-Governor, who represents the King's authority.

Laws passed by the States are subject to the control of the Privy Council, the islands being not responsible to the Foreign or Colonial Office. On the other hand, English laws are not of necessity valid in the Channel Islands, as the States have the power of adopting English laws or not as they please. Ecclesiastically the islands form part of the See of Winchester.

THE ISLE OF MAN

Lies in the midst of the Irish Sea, and has an area of 220 square miles, with a population of over 55,000. It is very hilly, the highest point, **Snae Fell**, being over 2000 feet. Its

chief towns, **Douglas, Peel, Castletown,** and **Ramsay**, are noted holiday resorts. Its early history is interesting. It was seized from the Scotch by Henry IV. in 1399, and bestowed by him on the Stanley family in 1406. After many changes it became in 1610 the private property of the Earl of Derby, from whom it was inherited by the Duke of Athol in 1736. His heirs sold their sovereignty rights to the British Parliament in 1827. The island is self-governing, but is under a Lieutenant-Governor appointed by the Crown. He, with the representative House of Keys (twenty-four members), makes up the Tynwald Court. The Manx belong to the Celtic group of nations.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.

CYPRUS

Is the third largest island in the Mediterranean, and is situated in the extreme east of that sea, about 40 miles off the coast of Syria. It is 140 miles long, 60 miles broad, and has two fine mountain ranges. The highest point (6406 feet) of the southern range is used as a summer station for British troops. The possession of this island, together with Gibraltar and Malta, enables us to command the Mediterranean, and under British care its commerce is also gradually becoming more valuable. It belonged for a short time to England in the twelfth century, having been taken by Richard Cœur de Lion in 1191. It passed into the hands of the Turks at the downfall of the power of Venice, and was given up to Great Britain for administration in 1878. It is governed by a High Commissioner appointed by the Crown, aided by a legislature of eighteen members, twelve of whom are elected. Though under the control of the British Colonial Office, Cyprus still forms a part of the Ottoman Empire, an annual tribute of £90,000 being paid to the creditors of the Sublime Porte. The capital is **Nicosia** (16,200), and the chief ports are **Larnaca** and **Limasol**.

ADEN

Is an important fortified town situated on a volcanic peninsula of the same name on the coast of Arabia, 120 miles from the

entrance to the Red Sea. Though the Protectorate of Aden is most unproductive, the town is the centre of a very large transit trade from the neighbouring countries, over 1500 ships visiting its fine harbour annually. It is a coaling station of the first rank, and is an important post on our highway to India. It was taken possession of by the British in 1839, being the first addition made to the British Empire after Queen Victoria's accession, as compensation for certain injuries done to a British vessel by the subjects of the Sultan, and has been strongly fortified since then in order to protect our commerce. It is governed by a Political Resident, who is also in command of the British troops that are stationed there, and is subject to the Government of Bombay. It is also the centre of a British Protectorate over the neighbouring Arab tribes, our influence extending from the **Bana** river to **Sheikh Mured**, on the Red Sea. This settlement was made in 1905, and includes the island of **Perim**, at the entrance to the Red Sea. The island is not fortified, but has a harbour and a lighthouse. The whole territory is in subordinate political relations with the Government of Bombay.

In addition to this territory on the mainland of Arabia, the large island of **Socotra** (1400 square miles), in the Indian Ocean, 150 miles east of Cape Guardafui, annexed in 1886, and the **Kuria Muria Islands**, off the south-eastern coast of the Peninsula, ceded to Britain by the Sultan of Muscat for an electric cable station, are also under British protection, and are administered from Aden.

In 1840 the Massah Islands and the island of Eibat, off the coast of Africa, were bought. In 1868 the area occupied at Aden was largely increased, and the island of Sirah acquired by purchase.

About 20 miles from the Arabian coast, in the Persian Gulf, is a group of islands of which **Bahrein** is the largest. These islands do a large trade, the chief industry being pearl fishery, in which many men are engaged. The islands are under the Government of India. **Bushire**, on the eastern side of the Persian Gulf, and **Koweit**, on the western, are the two chief ports on the Gulf.

In consequence of holding these various places in the Red Sea and Persian Gulf, Great Britain not only protects her route to the East, but acts as the Central Peace Authority. The various tribes of these regions are bound together by

treaties with the British or Indian Government to prevent piracy and the slave trade, and to keep the peace. The British Political Resident, who usually is at Bushire, is regarded as the recognised arbiter in any inter-tribal quarrels that may arise, and the peace of the Persian Gulf is maintained by the British flag.

Many of our possessions in the Red Sea and that neighbourhood are of value chiefly as strengthening our lines of inter-oceanic communication, and, though their actual value to us may not appear great at first sight, it must be remembered that the possession of them by any foreign Power would be a serious menace to our commercial maritime supremacy.

HONG-KONG

Is a small island situated at the mouth of the Canton river, but the name is used to include not only the island itself, whose capital is **Victoria**, but also all that portion of the mainland now occupied by the British under a lease from China.

Hong-Kong is the centre of British commerce in the Far East, and, after London, Liverpool, and Glasgow, is the most important port in the British Empire. It is a military, naval, and coaling station of the first class. The harbour is one of the finest in the world; over 11,000,000 tons of shipping entered the port in 1908. The island was ceded to Great Britain in 1841, a portion of the peninsula of Kowlun was obtained in 1860, while in 1898 the land overlooking the island, and consisting of all that portion of the mainland which is cut off by a line drawn from Deep Bay to Mirs Bay, was leased to Great Britain. Stonecutter's Island, Lema Island, also form part of the British Colony, whilst the island of Lautao is held under the new lease. The acquisition of this hinterland strengthens the strategic position immensely, and was rendered necessary owing to the command over Hong-Kong which might be obtained from the heights on the mainland.

This **Gibraltar of the East** is administered as a Crown Colony under a Governor, aided by a nominated Executive and Legislative Council. Hong Kong is the centre of European finance in the Far East.

WEI-HAI-WEI

Is a port on the Yellow Sea, situated at the southern entrance of the Gulf of Pechili, opposite to Port Arthur. The territory includes all the islands in the Bay, of which Lin Kung is the chief, as well as a ten-mile-broad strip of land along the coast, and is held by Great Britain under a lease from China. It is a valuable strategic position, helping us to guard our commercial interests in China, and is used as a flying naval base, depôt, exercising ground, and sanatorium for our China Squadron. Its harbour is large and well sheltered. This territory is administered by a Commissioner.

CEYLON

Is the largest (25,365 square miles) and most valuable of all the Crown Colonies of the British Empire. It hangs like a huge pear off the southern end of India. This island, about three-quarters as large as Ireland, possesses valuable minerals; its coasts are close to the most celebrated pearl fisheries in the world; while its agriculture produces enormous quantities of cocoa, rice, tea, and other tropical fruits and vegetables. The rubber "boom" of 1909-10 has resulted in many new plantations, which seem likely to cause a decrease in the acreage of the tea areas. Its natural productions are as varied as they are valuable. No part of our Eastern possessions is so richly endowed by nature as this pearl of the Indian Seas. Its commerce is consequently of great value, and is steadily growing, having now reached about £9,000,000. Population over 4,000,000. The island was first settled by the Portuguese, who, after holding it 150 years, were turned out by the Dutch in the seventeenth century. In 1796 the Dutch were dispossessed by the British, the island was annexed to the Presidency of Madras, and five years later (1801) it was made into a separate Crown Colony. Our possession of the island was formally confirmed by the Treaty of Amiens, 1802. The interior remained for some time under the authority of the natives, and it was not until 1815 that British sovereignty was established over the whole island. It is administered quite independently of India by a Governor, aided by an Executive and Legislative Council, the latter of which includes representatives of the different races in the

island. There are nine provinces, each with its own agent, judges, magistrates, and police. The seat of the Government is **Colombo**, a very flourishing port on the western coast. It has a splendid harbour, which is protected by a great break-water, and, besides being a much-frequented port of call, is a valuable coaling station. Many improvements are now being made in the harbour accommodation. **Trincomalee**, on the north-east, has a fine harbour, but little trade. It is a fortified coaling station.

OUR INDIAN EMPIRE

Comprises the central peninsula of Southern Asia, with extensive territories on the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal. The area of these vast dominions, either under direct British rule or subject to British control, amounts to thirty-one times the area of England and Wales, with a population of ten times that of those two countries.

The vast range of the Himalayas, stretching 1500 miles and rising to immense heights; the Great Plain of Northern India, with its fertile soil and dense population; the magnificent rivers, such as the Brahmaputra, the Ganges, the Indus; the rich and varied vegetable products; the valuable minerals; the huge forests, covering an area equal to the whole of Great Britain; the numerous and curious animals; and, lastly, the millions of men of varied race and religion, with their industries and commerce—all contribute to make up a fascinating picture that seizes on one's imagination. Our power in India has naturally been one of gradual growth. Up till 1858 all the provinces of British India were under the rule of the East India Company, subject only to a limited control by the Crown. In that year, however, the British Crown assumed direct responsibility, and since that date it has been increasing and consolidating its power. Queen Victoria formally assumed the title of Empress of India (*Kaisar-i-Hind*) 1st January 1877.

To sum up Indian history in a few words is no easy matter, but, roughly, one may say there are four great epochs in the connection of Britain with India. *Firstly*, the period of Clive, in which the French were driven out, the great Battle of Plassey won, which demonstrated the fighting superiority of British over natives, and in which the Company took over the actual government of Bengal. *Secondly*, the period of Warren Hastings,

in which the abuses of the Company's rule were to a great extent done away with, and good government organised under British officials. *Thirdly*, the period marked by the Mutiny in 1857 and the fall of the Company in 1858, followed by the assumption of direct responsibility by the British Parliament and Crown. *Fourthly*, the period since the Declaration of Empire in 1877, which has witnessed the continuous consolidation of our interests and the strengthening of our bonds with this vast possession.

The Government of India is a very complicated matter, which has grown up gradually as a kind of development of the methods of the East India Company fused into the system of the British constitution. We will briefly outline the essential points. The Crown exercises its powers through a Minister, who is directly responsible to Parliament, and is called the Secretary of State for India. He has a seat in the Cabinet, and is assisted by a Council of men experienced in Indian affairs, and whose advice he takes if he thinks fit. This part of the government is carried on in London. In India itself the King is represented by the Viceroy, whose office really dates back to 1774 as Governor-General, when the three Presidencies were united under one Governor-General. The Viceroy is assisted by a permanent Council, appointed by the Secretary of State, of whom one is always a financier, another is a lawyer, and one is the Commander-in-Chief for India. This Council is called the Executive. The Viceroy has the general supervision of the whole of India, but the country is divided up into a number of locally governed territories, whose systems are similar but not identical. These territories are again divided into districts,¹ and it is the Commissioner of the district, the district-magistrate, and the collector who form the executive of local government. These officers are the moving power in the real government of India; their districts are sometimes very large, and the Commissioner and his subordinates are responsible to the Governor of the Province. The Governors of Madras and Bombay can address the Secretary of State directly, but all other governors of Provinces, lieutenant-governors, chief commissioners, etc., can only do so through the Supreme Government at Calcutta.

¹ District in India is a political area, subordinate to a Division, which in turn is subordinate to a Province, or in some cases to a territory in a Province.

The defence of our great dependency is arranged for partly by a British and partly by an Indian army. All plans for action on land are based on the assumption of the command of the sea by the British Navy. If anything goes wrong with the Navy, India cannot be seriously defended for any length of time, for reinforcements and military supplies could not then be safely sent by sea, and from all parts of the Empire the road to India lies on the sea. The vital necessity of supremacy at sea is the root and beginning of the problem of India's defence.

The various tracts of country comprising India are divided into Provinces of British India and Native States.

PROVINCES OF BRITISH INDIA.

There are nine great Provinces with four divisions.

MADRAS.

The **Madras Presidency** embraces all the southern portion of the peninsula, and stretches northward to **Lake Chilka**. Its area is nearly three times that of England, and it has a population of 38,000,000.

Madras, the capital, is on the Coromandel Coast. The other important towns are **Masulipatam**, **Coringa**, **Arcot**, **Trichinopoly**, and **Madura**.

BOMBAY.

The **Bombay Presidency** includes all the western portion of British India, and has within its borders many native states. With these its area is four times that of England.

Its capital, **Bombay**, situated on an island, has an excellent harbour with coaling facilities, and is the commercial capital of British India, though **Calcutta** is the political capital. It is one of our earliest possessions in India, having been given to England by the Portuguese Crown in 1662. Other important towns are **Hyderabad**, **Surat**, **Poonah**, and **Kurachee (Karachi)**. This last is a rising port near the mouths of the Indus, and, besides exporting large quantities of grain, is a valuable coaling station.

BENGAL

Is the most populous and productive of the British Provinces of India. It includes the valleys of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, together with a vast alluvial plain. It is more than three times the size of England. **Calcutta**, its chief town, ranks as the capital of British India; other important towns are **Patna** and **Moorshedabad**.

EASTERN BENGAL AND ASSAM

Has recently been formed by adjustment of the western frontier of Bengal. It includes the whole of **Assam** (whose capital is **Dacca**), noted for its tea plantations, and **Chittagong**. It is about twice the size of England, with a population of 31,000,000. With this province is now included **Manipur** and **Hill Tippera**, the former of which is notorious for the rebellion of 1891, when the British Commissioner and others were massacred. The State is now under complete British control, and pays an annual tribute.

THE UNITED PROVINCES OF AGRA AND OUDH

Form the upper part of the great plain of the Ganges to the west of Bengal. Oudh was annexed in 1856. The province is more than twice as big as England and Wales. Wheat, rice, and other crops are widely grown. The important cities are **Agra**, **Benares**, **Cawnpore**, **Allahabad**, **Lucknow**, and **Meerut**.

THE CENTRAL PROVINCES

Comprise the northern portion of the **Deccan** between the **Nerbudda** and **Godavery**. This territory is about the size of Great Britain. Chief towns are **Nagpur**, **Jubbulpore**, and **Saugor**.

THE PUNJAB

Comprises the north-western portion of the great Plain of India. There are thirty-six native states in the Punjab which are feudatory, the rest being directly under British government. This is called the "Regulation District" and has an area

which is rather more than twice that of England. **Lahore, Delhi, Simla, and Amritsar** are notable places.

BURMA,

Stretching from the Indian Ocean and British India up to Siam, China, and Tibet, has an area of nearly five times that of England and Wales. It is divided into **Lower and Upper Burma**, of which the former was formed into a province called **British Burma** in 1862, its northern and southern portions having been annexed after the first Burmese War of 1825, and the central portion after the second Burmese War of 1852. The chief town is **Rangoon**, on a branch of the Irawadi, the centre of a very large trade, second only to that of Calcutta.

Upper Burma occupies, with the tributary **Shan States**, all the north-western portion of the peninsula, and has an area of 180,000 square miles, whilst **Lower Burma** has 87,000. It was annexed to British India in 1886, after the third Burmese War. The chief town is **Mandalay**, to the north of which lie valuable ruby mines.

A railway runs from Rangoon to Mandalay and thence as far north as Myitkina. It is proposed to continue the line from Myitkina to Yunnan in China, and thence into the valley of the Yang-tse-Kiang.

Burma is administered as a province of British India, and is governed by a Lieut.-Governor of its own, assisted by a Local Legislative Council nominated by the Lieut.-Governor.

THE NORTH-WEST FRONTIER PROVINCE

Has been recently formed out of the Punjab. Its chief town is **Peshawar**.

In addition to these nine chief Provinces of British India there are the four following minor divisions, each under a Chief Commissioner: **British Baluchistan, Coorg and Berar, Ajmer-Merwara, the Andaman and Nicobar Islands**. These are noticed later on, but are here mentioned, as the above thirteen provinces form *British India* properly so-called.

The total area is considerably over a million square miles, being in excess of the combined areas of England, France,

Germany, Austria, and Italy. The population of British India is 230,000,000.

THE NATIVE STATES

Of India number about 800, with a total area of nearly 800,000 square miles and a population of over 70,000,000. Their armies number about 300,000 men.

These vast territories, though not under British control, are subject to the Supreme Government in varying degrees, and, speaking generally, are governed by native Princes, with the help and advice of a British Political Officer. Some pay a tribute, others do not. It is impossible even to enumerate them in a superficial glance over the British Empire, still less to describe them at any length, but perhaps the most interesting, if not the most important, to us are the following:—

RAJPUTANA

Is the name given to a large tract of country in the north-west, south of the Punjab, and between the North-West Provinces and Bombay Presidency. It consists of various small states, ruled by Rajputs, all under the control of British Agents, the chief of whom resides at **Ajmere** on the **Aravalli Hills**. Rajputana is somewhat bigger than Great Britain and Ireland.

To the south and east of Rajputana lies a large group of states called

CENTRAL INDIA.

In this division the three chief states are **Gwalior**, under British protection since 1803, **Indore**, and **Bhopal**. To the west of these lies the small state of **Baroda**, while the rest of the territory round the **Gulf of Cambay** is called **Guzerat**. Of the two peninsulas north of this Gulf, the nearest and biggest is **Kathiawar** and the smaller, farther north, is **Cutch**, separated from the mainland by a vast salt marsh, known as the **Rann of Cutch**. Farther to the south, and entirely inland, lies the premier native state

HYDERABAD,

Under a ruler styled the Nizam. This powerful State is most loyal and is very wealthy; the town of **Assaye** (1803) is in the Nizam's dominions. Farther south, and entirely surrounded by the Madras Presidency, is the State of

MYSORE,

With the town of **Seringapatam**, where the British fought in 1791, 1792, and 1798. The fort of **Bangalore** is occupied by our troops. The State was restored to the native ruler in 1881, having been entirely under our government since 1834.

The other groups of Native States are the

BOMBAY STATES,

of which **Cutch** and **Khairpur** are the chief;

THE MADRAS STATES,

of which **Travancore** and **Cochin** are the chief;

THE BENGAL STATES,

In which is **Kuch Behar**; and

THE PUNJAB STATES,

Of which **Patiala** and **Bahawalpur** are the chief.

BALUCHISTAN.

This is the general name given to a large tract of country between Persia, Afghanistan, India and the Indian Ocean.

Though part of the country is nominally subject to the Khan of Kalat, yet his rule is carried on under the direction of a British Agent; a large portion of the country (called **British Baluchistan**) is under direct British control, another portion is administered on the Khan's behalf by British officers, so that practically the whole of the territory is a British Protectorate.

The influence of the British Political Agent is undefined, but the State cannot be considered as anything but British. British troops have occupied the town of **Quetta** since 1877, thus commanding the famous **Bolan Pass**, and, as one of the results of recent operations on the north-western frontier of India, British authority is paramount throughout the country from the sea to the border of Afghanistan, and from **Zhob Valley** to the **Gornul Pass**. Its possession is most important as an outpost to protect India from attacks from the north-west, and to afford us another route in addition to the **Khyber Pass** into Afghanistan, by means of which we may concentrate troops from India in the event of a hostile invasion of that country.

In the north-east of India, running along the southern side of the Himalayas and including in their territory the highest ridges, lie three states which, though independent, are to some extent under British influence. The biggest and most westerly of these is

NEPAL,

The native land of the warlike Gurkhas, which extends for 500 miles along the mountains and includes Mount Everest in its border. The State is rather bigger than England and Wales. A British Political Agent resides in the chief town, **Katmandu**. Adjoining Nepal on the east is the small State of

SIKKIM,

About the size of Lincolnshire, whose chief towns are **Tumlong** and **Gantok**. A British Political Agent resides in the State. Farther to the east again is the hill-country of

BHUTAN,

Which is a third of the size of England and Wales. There is no British Resident, but the Ruler is on good terms with the Indian Government.

To the north of these three states lies Tibet, and the importance of the three states to us lies in their position as outlying buffer states with whom we must be on good terms, and also the necessity of keeping open the various trade routes which pass through them to the north.

Of the many remaining Native States, some are entirely dependent on British authority, others tributary, and others almost independent except on matters which concern the Empire as a whole. We may note **Kashmir**, with its beautiful valley, a country with magnificent scenery and grand climate, through which a railway will soon run to **Srinagar**, its capital. **Gilgit** is an important military post in this State. **Chitral** is a small State to the north-west of Kashmir, where the military operations of 1896 took place, and where the disturbances occurred near Chakdare in 1898. The **Sikh States**, whose brave soldiers figure so prominently with the Gurkhas in our frontier wars, are situated in the Punjab.

THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS

Is the name given to the British possessions on the west coast of the Malay Peninsula.

The most important is the very valuable island of **Singapore**, situated off the southern extremity of the Peninsula, on which is the town of **Singapore**, the seat of government, and by far the most important place in the Straits Settlements. The harbour is very commodious, and the port is, after Hong-Kong, the most important trading centre in the Far East. It is a strongly fortified coaling station, with excellent docks, and has not only a great transit trade with Europe, India, and the Far East, but also with Australia, the Dutch Indies, and China. The island was acquired by purchase by Sir Stamford Raffles, acting under the authority of the Marquis of Hastings, Governor-General of India, in 1819, and was formally given up by the Sultan of Tohore in 1824. Its administration is independent of India, and consists of a Governor with an Executive and a Legislative Council. The Government also administers all the other British possessions in the Straits, and looks after the Native Malay Federated States as well.

Off the west coast of the Peninsula, 360 miles north-west of Singapore, lies the small island of **Penang**, with an excellent harbour at **Georgetown**, where most of the trade of the northern portion of the Peninsula and of Sumatra centres. It was acquired in 1785-86 by Sir John Macpherson, acting under the orders of the Indian Government.

On the mainland, opposite to Penang, is a strip of territory 45 miles long, called **Province Wellesley**, which is under

high cultivation. It was originally acquired in 1800, but more has been added since, and the total area now amounts to 300 square miles.

Seventy miles south of Penang are some small islands called **The Dindings**, which are also under British Government. They are not much developed at present, but they possess a capital harbour at **Lumut**. Opposite these islands is a strip of territory cut out of the native state of Perak, which is regarded as a part of the Dinding territory.

On the western shore of the Peninsula, about 110 miles north of Singapore, is the district of **Malacca**, about the size of Hertfordshire, chiefly noted for its tapioca. It is one of the oldest European settlements in the East, having been taken by the Portuguese in 1511. They were driven out by the Dutch in 1640, who in their turn were expelled by the British in 1795, who, however, restored it, and ultimately acquired it in 1824 by exchange for certain lands in Sumatra.

700 miles south-west of Sumatra lie a group of small islands, called **The Cocos** or **Keeling Islands**, in the Indian Ocean, exporting large quantities of cocoa-nuts and oil. They were annexed to the Singapore Administration in 1886, and three years later a small island, 200 miles south-west of Java, called **Christmas Island**¹ was also annexed as a future station for a cable between India and Australia.

THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES.

In addition to the above British Dependencies, all administered under Singapore and consisting of 1500 square miles, there are much more extensive territories belonging to Native Rulers, who govern under the advice and direction of British Residents, or Political Agents, and whose countries are under British protection, though nominally independent. These are **Keda** and **Kelantan** on the north; **Perak**, **Selangor**, and **Sungei Ujong** on the western side, between Malaccas and Province Wellesley; **Pahang** and **Trengganu** on the east; **Negri Sembilan**, a confederation of nine small states in the centre; and **Johor** in the south, just above Singapore.

The entire region comprises about 48,000 square miles, and is very rich in agricultural resources and in mineral wealth.

¹ There are two islands of this name. See page 167.

Considerably more than half the *tin* in the world is exported from the Malay mines.

MALAY ARCHIPELAGO.

To the west of the Malay Peninsula lie many islands belonging to the Dutch, British, Americans, and Portuguese. The Dutch own by far the greater portion of this **Malay Archipelago**, but the British possessions are considerable. They consist of **British North Borneo, Sarawak, Brunei,** and **Labuan Island.**

British North Borneo is a magnificent territory, nearly as large as Ireland, possessing all the best harbours of the island, and being by far the most valuable portion of Borneo both from an agricultural and mineral point of view. It was ceded by the Sultan of the island to a British Company in 1878, whose rights were confirmed by Royal Charter in 1881, and in 1888 it was proclaimed a British Protectorate. The machinery of administration is similar to that of a Crown Colony, there being a Governor, Council and Residents, the Company having large powers. The chief town is **Sandakan.**

Sarawak is a territory nearly as big as England, stretching for 400 miles along the north-west side of the island. Its administration was entrusted in 1842 to Sir James Brooke by the then Sultan, and is still in the hands of his descendants, under protection of the British Government.

Brunei is a small portion (3000 square miles) of the northern part of Borneo, lying between these two protectorates. It is ruled by its own Sultan, but its foreign relations are under the care of His Majesty's Government.

The total area of Borneo is 280,000 square miles, of which 84,000 miles are under British protection, the rest being Dutch.

Labuan Island is situated about six miles off the coast of North-Western Borneo, and has an area of 31 square miles. There is a large amount of coal in the island, which constitutes its value to Great Britain. It was acquired for the Empire by the wisdom of Sir James Brooke in 1845, made a Crown Colony in 1847, and placed under the administration of the British North Borneo Company in 1890, but was transferred in 1906 to direct British administration.

The **Laccadivhs**¹ are a group off the west coast of the Madras Presidency, and the **Maldivhs**, another group off the south-west coast. The former are governed from India, the latter from Ceylon. They are numerous, small, and low islets of coral-reef formation, whence cocoa-nuts and some other tropical fruits are exported.

The **Andaman Islands** are situated in the Bay of Bengal, about 160 miles south of the mouth of the Irawadi. They are narrow, mountainous, and thickly wooded islands, and are used by the Indian Government as a Penal Settlement. **Port Blair** has a magnificent harbour. The present settlement there dates from 1858, but the islands were used for convicts as early as 1789.

The **Nicobar Islands** are a smaller group between the Andamans and Sumatra. Cocoa-nut palms flourish on these islands, whence the fruit is exported in large quantities. The group was taken possession of by the British in 1869, after formal cession by the Dutch.

The Andamans and Nicobars are now administered under a Chief Commissioner as one of the minor provinces of British India.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA.

The British Colonies in the African Continent fall naturally into geographical divisions of South, West, East, and Central Africa. The Union of South Africa forms part of the sub-continent. Its area embraces nearly 470,000 square miles, with a population of more than 5,000,000.

By the South Africa Act (1909) the self-governing Colonies (Cape Colony, Natal, Transvaal, Orange River) became, on 31st May 1910, united in a Legislative Union under one Government. They are now original Provinces of the Union under the names of the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange Free State respectively.

The government consists of a Governor-General, appointed by the Sovereign, with an Executive Council, a Senate of forty members, and a House of Assembly of 121 members. All members must be British subjects of European descent. The seat of the Government is Pretoria, that of the Legislature is Cape Town. Provision has been made for the admission of

¹ Divh—-island.

Rhodesia under the act. The first Governor is Viscount Gladstone, and the first Prime Minister the Rt. Hon. Louis Botha.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE

Embraces the whole of the southern district of the continent of Africa, stretching from Cape Agulhas up to the Orange River, the Orange Free State, and Natal. Its area is somewhat less than that of the Austrian Empire. The whole of this important Colony is suited for the industries and commerce of European civilisation, though the bulk of the population is of Kaffir origin. Sheep- and cattle-rearing, ostrich-farming, wine-growing, as well as mining, are the most important industries. The value of the exports amounted in 1908 to over £42,000,000. British influence at the Cape has been gradually growing ever since it was finally taken possession of in 1806 from the Dutch, who had first settled there in 1652. In 1814 the Colony was formally ceded to Great Britain, and since then its boundaries have been extended from time to time. In 1847 the Orange River was settled upon as its northern frontier, and the Colony absorbed **British Kaffraria** in 1866, **Griqualand East** in 1875, **Griqualand West** in 1876, **British Bechuanaland**, **Pondoland**, and the other **Transkeian Territories** in 1894-95.

Walfish Bay Territory (430 square miles) and several small islands off the west coast are also administered from Cape Town.

There are several fine harbours and ports in the British Colony, though, on the other hand, the rivers are not of great value for navigation. **Saldanha Bay** is the biggest natural harbour: **Simon's Bay** is the principal South African station of the British Fleet, and possesses, in addition to coaling facilities, a dockyard and fortifications. Measures are now being taken to strengthen it and to improve its dockyards.

Cape Town is the capital of the Colony, and is the most important place in South Africa. It is also a coaling station. **Table Bay**, on which it is situated, is a magnificent harbour, and has coaling facilities.

Port Elizabeth, on Algoa Bay, is the great wool port.

Kimberley is noted for its diamonds: **Vryburg**, **Mafeking**, **East London**, **Grahamstown**, **Graaf Reinet**, are other important places

The Colony was granted responsible government in 1872. Until recently the Governor of Cape Colony acted also as High Commissioner for British South Africa. The Province is looked after by an Administrator, appointed for five years by the Governor-General, aided by a Provincial Council with an Executive Committee. There is also a complete system of local self-government. There is a university at Cape Town; state-aided elementary schools, private schools, and various religious institutions carry on instruction, but there is no compulsory education. Besides the Imperial troops in the Colony, there are large numbers of volunteers, many of whom are mounted.

NATAL

Extends from the Indian Ocean to the Drakensberg Mountains, and has an area of one-third that of England and Wales. It is a very go ahead imperialistic colony, whose commerce is rapidly developing. It is intensely loyal, as has lately been shown. Sheep-farming, sugar-growing, and coal-mining are its chief industries. **Pietermaritzburg**, lying 2000 feet above sea-level and 54 miles inland, is the capital, but **Durban**, which is the fourth city of South Africa, is the most important town commercially. All the trade of Natal, as well as a large proportion of that of the Transvaal and Orange Free State, passes through Durban. It is also an important coaling station, and is fortified.

Natal was discovered on Christmas Day 1497 by Vasco di Gama, but was not successfully occupied by Europeans till a few British settled at Durban in 1824. In 1835-37 a large number of Boers came overland from Cape Colony, and in 1843 it was proclaimed British and annexed to the Cape. In 1856 the district became a separate colony, and in 1893 it was granted representative and responsible self-government. The administration of the Province is conducted similarly to that of the Cape of Good Hope. Besides the Imperial forces, there is a strong Colonial force of volunteers.

Zululand is a territory immediately to the north of Natal, from which it is separated by the Tugela River. It has an area of 9000 square miles. This district was acquired from the natives by the British Government after many disputes and much fighting during the years 1877 to 1884, and was finally

annexed, for the sake of preserving orderly government, in 1897. It forms a dependency of Natal, and is administered by that Colony.

Eshowe is the residence of the Chief Commissioner, whereas the old native capital is Ulundi.

Tongoland is a small state to the north of Zululand, between it and the Portuguese territory. It has an area of 5000 square miles, was annexed in 1887, and since 1898 has formed a dependency of Natal. In 1903 certain districts of the Transvaal were annexed to the Colony, and are now under Natal administration.

THE ORANGE FREE STATE.

Under this name it had existed as an independent republic for forty-six years, but in consequence of participation in the Boer attack on the adjacent British territories it was annexed to the British Crown in 1900 under the name of the Orange River Colony. As a Province under the Act the old name has been restored. Resistance was continued till 1902, when the sovereignty of King Edward was acknowledged. It has an area of 50,000 square miles, and is situated between the Orange and the Vaal Rivers. It was founded by those Boers who quitted Cape Colony in 1836 and the following years, and was recognised as an independent State in 1854. It joined the Transvaal on the outbreak of war with Great Britain, and was proclaimed a British Colony soon after the occupation of its capital, **Bloemfontein**, by Lord Roberts, on 13th March 1900. Its administration was for some time after the war in the hands of a Governor and Council, but in 1907 responsible government was established in the Colony. The trade of the Orange Free State is small, and chiefly consists of wool, hides, and diamonds. The population is somewhat over 380,000, of whom 150,000 are whites.

THE TRANSVAAL

Lies on the northern side of the Vaal River, and extends as far as the Limpopo River. On the east it is bounded by Zululand and Portuguese East Africa, while on the west it adjoins Bechuanaland. The area of this territory is about 111,000

square miles, while the population is nearly $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions. The country was taken possession of by the Boers from Cape Colony in the "great trek" of 1836, and its position as an independent State was recognised by Great Britain in 1852. Owing to trouble with native tribes, the Boers sought British aid, and in 1877 the country was annexed. The annexation was not a success, and in 1881 the State once more became independent. In 1886 the valuable goldfields on the Witwatersrand were discovered, and this led to a large immigration of Europeans. The town of **Johannesburg**, the centre of the gold-mining industry, soon became the most populous city of the Transvaal. The Europeans, however, were discontented with their position as regards the franchise, and a series of troubles between them and the Boer Government arose. In 1896 the Jameson Raid took place. From that time onwards the discontent became worse, and communications took place between the British Government and the President of the South African Republic, but with no improvement of the state of affairs. The efforts of the British Government to secure the equitable treatment of the very large population of "outlanders" came to an unsuccessful conclusion in October 1899. War then commenced, and, after some checks and some severe disasters, the British army, under Lord Roberts, entered **Pretoria** on 5th June 1900. Hostilities continued till 1902, when terms of surrender were agreed to.

After the conclusion of the war, the constitution provided for a Governor aided by a Council, all of whom were nominated by the Governor. In 1905 a new assembly, partly elected and partly official, was created, and in 1906 representative government was granted. Since the Act (1909) the administration has been harmonised with that of the three other Provinces.

The native territory of **Swaziland**, situated at the south-eastern corner of the Transvaal, is under the administration of British Government. It has an area of nearly 7000 square miles.

BASUTOLAND

Is a well-watered grain- and grass-producing elevated plateau, about twice the size of Yorkshire, lying between Cape Colony, Natal, and the Orange Free State. In 1856 hostilities arose between the Basutos and the settlers in the Orange Free State. In 1868 the Basutos were saved from destruction

by being taken under British protection, and in 1871 their country was annexed to Cape Colony. In 1879 the natives revolted again, after which the country was made a separate Crown Colony under an Imperial Resident Commissioner. **Maseru** is the capital.

An enormous tract of country called

THE BECHUANALAND PROTECTORATE

Consists of districts under the direct protection of the King, but ruled by native chiefs. These districts are called after their rulers, **Khama**, **Sebele**, **Bathoen**, and others who recognise the Governor-General as the King's representative. The territory lies between the Zambesi on the north, the Molopo on the south, Southern Rhodesia on the east, and German South-West Africa on the west. The actual administration is in the hands of the British South Africa Company. The chief centres are **Serowe**, **Francistown**, and **Gaberones**. The area of this Protectorate is about 275,000 square miles, with a population of over 130,000. The headquarters of the Protectorate Administration are at **Mafeking**, Cape Province.

Adjoining the Bechuanaland Protectorate, and separated from the Transvaal by the Limpopo or Crocodile River, is situated

SOUTHERN RHODESIA.

This country, bounded on the north by the Zambesi, has been wonderfully developed by the British South Africa Company since the occupation of 1890. Severe fighting with the natives took place in 1893 and again in 1896, but with the advent of the railway the country is now settling down. It contains an area of 144,000 square miles, and is divided into two provinces, **Matabeleland** and **Mashonaland**, of which **Salisbury** and **Bulawayo** are the capitals. North of the Zambesi, and separated from Southern Rhodesia by the river, is situated

NORTH-WESTERN RHODESIA.

This territory used to be called *Barotseland*, and is bounded by the Congo State, Portuguese South-West Africa, and

North-Eastern Rhodesia. It contains about 182,000 square miles. Adjoining it is

NORTH-EASTERN RHODESIA,

Bounded by the Congo State, German East Africa, and British Central Africa. It contains 106,000 square miles. **Fort Jameson, Fife** and **Abercorn** are important centres.

All these three territories are usually called **Rhodesia**, and are under the administration of the British South Africa Company. To the east of North-Eastern Rhodesia lies

NYASALAND PROTECTORATE,

Bounded on the east by **Lake Nyasa**. The area of this Protectorate, which is administered by the Colonial Office, is 40,980 square miles.

The chief centres are **Blantyre** in **Shiré Highlands**, **Zomba** and **Port Herald**.

Throughout Rhodesia and this Protectorate civilisation is making headway, the slave trade is suppressed, and legitimate trade encouraged. Order is maintained by British forces of various kinds, some of whom come from India. Not only roads but railways are being made, which, with steamers on Lake Nyasa and Lake Tanganyika, provide communication from **Chinde** on the sea-coast with the heart of Central Africa.

THE UGANDA PROTECTORATE

Is a term including not only Uganda proper, but Unyoro, Usoga, and other districts lying all together to the west and north-west of Lake Victoria Nyanza. Besides a part of this lake nearly all Lake Albert Nyanza, part of Lake Edward, the whole of Lake Kioga, half of Lake Rudolf, and the course of the Nile from its exit from Lake Victoria to Gondokoro, where the Egyptian Sudan commences, lie within the Protectorate. These districts have an area of 90,000 square miles, and were taken under direct Imperial Administration as a Protectorate in 1894 and succeeding years. **Kampala, Entebbe,** and **Mengo** are the chief centres, and a railway now runs from **Mombasa** on the sea-coast to **Port Florence**,

the terminus on Lake Victoria Nyanza, a distance of 584 miles ; and Nile steamers ply from Khartoum up to Gondokoro on the northern boundary of the Protectorate.

THE EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE

Embraces a vast area (190,000 square miles) immediately to the east of the Uganda Protectorate, stretching to the coast, and bounded by German East Africa, Italian Somaliland, and Abyssinia. A ten-mile wide strip of coast-line is the property of the Sultan of Zanzibar, but is leased from him at a rental by the British Government and thus forms a province of the Protectorate.

All this part of Africa, including Uganda, was opened up by the British Imperial East Africa Company, but in 1895 the Company was bought out by the Government and the above arrangement made. **Mombasa** has a fine harbour, and is a rising commercial port. Other centres are **Malindi**, **Lamu**, **Kismayu**, **Machakos**. The administration of this district is under the control of the British Consul General at Zanzibar.

THE PROTECTORATE OF ZANZIBAR

Consists now of the two islands of **Zanzibar** and **Pemba** and the strip of coast-line. The islands (625 square miles and 360 square miles) are populous and prosperous. The city of Zanzibar is the largest in East Africa, and possesses a magnificent harbour with great facilities for trade and shipping. It is termed the "Liverpool of East Africa," and does a very valuable trade with Britain, India, and Germany in all kinds of goods, especially cloves, rubber, copra, gums, and ivory. The Sultanate of Zanzibar formerly included a large portion of the mainland from **Cape Delgado** as far north as **Waisheikh**, but all this has been gradually placed under control of either Britain, Germany, or Italy during the last ten years.

The British Protectorate was declared in 1890, but in 1896, on the death of the late Sultan, a pretender seized the palace and refused to recognise British authority. After a bombardment of half an hour from British warships, however, he fled, and is now under German supervision, while the present Sultan and his Government are under British protection.

SOMALILAND PROTECTORATE.

The Somali coast, from Lahadu to Bandar Ziyada, is administered by a Commissioner as a British Protectorate. The area is about 68,000 square miles, with a population of about 300,000, entirely nomadic except on the coast. The chief towns are **Berbera**, **Zeila**, and **Bulhar**, at all of which there are British Officers.

ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN.

Immediately to the north of Uganda and British East Africa lies an enormous, partly-explored region termed the Sudan, the eastern portion of which forms a province of Egypt, and was under Egyptian rule till the rise of the Mahdi. By the success of the British and Egyptian arms at Omdurman, 1898, this district has been restored to Egypt. Throughout this district British influence is recognised as paramount while in the whole of Egypt proper Britain is the predominant power. There is no formal British Protectorate over Egypt, but since 1882 Great Britain has preserved order and administered justice in the whole of this region, and British sea-power may not inaptly be said to extend as far up the Nile as a gunboat can go.

Thus, from Cape Town in the south to Alexandria in the north, Britain acts as the guardian of law and order, and practically governs what may be termed the central backbone of the Continent.

NIGERIA

Is a comprehensive term embracing a territory of about 300,000 square miles, stretching from the west coast of Africa to Lake Chad, bounded on the north and west by French possessions and on the south-east by German. The British possessions on the Niger and its delta have now been organised as a single territory under the Colonial Office. For administrative purposes they are divided into three districts—**Lagos**, **Southern Nigeria**, and **Northern Nigeria**.

The first of these divisions is a Crown Colony, and consists of the islands of **Lagos** ($3\frac{3}{4}$ square miles) and **Iddo**, with a strip of coast line from **Porto Novo** to the Benin River. The

town of **Lagos** is the largest on the west coast, and has the only safe harbour along 1000 miles of coast-line.

The second division, **Southern Nigeria**, includes the district called, until January 1900, the Niger Coast Protectorate (formerly the Oil Rivers Protectorate) and a portion of the former territories of the Royal Niger Company. It consists now of the whole maritime region between the colony of Lagos and the **Rio del Rey**. The capital is **Old Calabar**, while **Bonny, Brass, Benin, and Akassa** are places of note.

The third division, **Northern Nigeria**, contains the greater part of the country recently administered by the Royal Niger Company. By the efforts of this Company, under the care of Sir George Goldie, a vast and valuable territory has been added to the British Empire at a very trifling cost. The capital is **Zungeru**; other large towns are **Wurno** (capital of Sokoto), **Yola, Kano, Yakubu, and Lokoja**.

By means of military stations at Kuka and other places the vast area from the Niger to Lake Chad is occupied by the British Imperial forces which are largely recruited from the native tribes, especially from the **Haussas** of the Sokoto region. In consequence of the action of the British in these regions, the whole of Nigeria is gradually being brought into a state of order and security, and the formerly incessant wars fomented by petty chiefs and religious fanatics are becoming things of the past as British influence extends. During recent years the respective spheres of influence of Great Britain, France, and Germany have been more definitely settled, and causes of friction between France and Britain have to a great extent been removed. Steamers on the Niger River are the most valuable means of maintaining order and security.

Within this vast area is included one of the most densely populated regions in Africa—many millions of people of varying degrees of civilisation, from the ruling Futani caste to the wild Pagans, whose organisation is so primitive that they do not recognise a headman in the villages where they congregate.

THE GOLD COAST

Is a Crown Colony stretching 350 miles along the coast, bounded on the east by Togoland (German) and on the west by the Ivory Coast (French). Inland is the native State of

Ashanti, while farther north are territories recently absorbed into the Colony by agreements with France (1898) and Germany (1899). The barbarities of the Ashanti king led to a war with the British in 1873-74, and again in 1895-96, after which the country was annexed, and a British Resident installed at **Kumasi**.

In 1900-01 another campaign took place in which the British were completely victorious.

Most of the region is very unhealthy, and communication through the roadless forest is very difficult. Gold, palm-oil, and rubber are plentiful. The coast region was exploited by the Portuguese as early as 1481. They were driven out by the Dutch, who gave way in turn to the British. From 1662-1821 British Chartered Companies administered the country, but in that year it was made a portion of the Crown Colony of Sierra Leone. In 1874 the settlement was created a separate Crown Colony. **Accra, Elmina, and Cape Coast Castle** are the chief towns. **Tarkwa** is the centre of the gold-mining industry.

THE GAMBIA

Is a Crown Colony comprising several islands at the mouth or up the stream of the river Gambia, together with a narrow strip of land on both banks up to **M'Carthy's Island**, 187 miles from the mouth. The Gambia is the only West African river navigable by ocean-going steamers. The chief island is **St. Mary's**, on which is situated **Bathurst**, the capital of the colony. It is the oldest British colony in West Africa, the river having been open to British trade as early as Elizabeth's reign. There is an Administrator with a Council.

SIERRA LEONE

Is a Crown Colony adjoining Liberia on the south-east, and is bounded by French possessions on the rest of its frontier. It has an area of 30,000 square miles, and includes the islands of **Sherbro** and **Manuel**. The actual peninsula was ceded to Britain by the native chiefs in 1787, and in 1807 the present colony was formed. It is very unhealthy, though beautiful and fertile. **Freetown**, the capital, is the headquarters of the British forces in West Africa, is a first-class coaling station and

the centre of the trade of the Colony. It is administered by a Governor, who is aided by Councils.

In addition to the small islands off the west coast of Africa, which are under the administration of Cape Colony, such as **Mercury, Roast Beef, Halifax**, etc., there are some isolated islands belonging to Great Britain lying far from the mainland in the South Atlantic Ocean. These are nearly all of volcanic origin, and have little physical connection with the Continent.

St. Helena lies 1200 miles from the mainland, and is a huge rock rising to a height of nearly 3000 feet. The area is 47 square miles. **Jamestown**, on James Bay, is a strongly fortified coaling station, and was until recently manned by a British garrison. This has, however, been entirely withdrawn, greatly to the disadvantage of the island. It is still resorted to by the Cape of Good Hope Squadron. Napoleon I. was exiled to **Longwood**, 1815-21. The island was taken by the British in 1651 from the Dutch, and, after passing through the hands of the East India Company, it was finally ceded to the Crown in 1834. It is administered by a Governor, who is alone responsible for law and order.

Ascension Island, 35 square miles in area, is 1000 miles from Cape Palmas and 700 from St. Helena. It is of great value as a health resort for sick sailors, and as a strongly fortified coaling station and naval depôt. It was uninhabited till 1815, when the British took possession of it and made use of it for the above purposes. It has a naval officer as Governor, and is administered as a man-of-war. **Georgetown** is the only settlement. Turtles are caught here in abundance.

Tristan da Cunha is the largest of a group of islands, 1700 miles to the west of Cape of Good Hope, and due south of Ascension. The inhabitants are few; there is hardly any cultivated ground, provisions being sent by the British Government. The other islands in the group, **Inaccessible Island** and **Nightingale Islands**, are practically mere rocks. The highest peak is 6400 feet above the sea.

The largest collection of South Atlantic islands is

THE FALKLAND GROUP,

Situated 300 miles east of the Magellan Straits. These consist of **East** and **West Falkland** and about 100 small islands, having a total area of 6500 square miles. Discovered by Davis

in 1592, they passed through the hands of France, Spain, and the Republic of Buenos Ayres, till in 1833 they were taken possession of by the British for the protection of the whale fishery in those waters. **Port Stanley** is the chief settlement, and is a coaling station. The government is vested in a Governor and Council, all the members being appointed by the Crown. **South Georgia** (area 1000 square miles), lying 800 miles south-east of the Falklands, and some other small uninhabited islands are also included in this—the most southerly—British Colony.

Off the east coast of Africa, besides Zanzibar, Socotra, the islands in the Red Sea, etc., described elsewhere, Great Britain possesses the beautiful and prosperous

MAURITIUS,

Situated 500 miles east of Madagascar. With an area of 705 square miles, it has a population of nearly 400,000, chiefly engaged in the cultivation of *sugar*. **Port Louis**, possessing a splendid harbour with coaling facilities, **Curepipe** and **Mahebourg** are the chief towns. Held in succession by the Portuguese (1505), the Dutch (1598-1712), it became an important naval base to the French (1715-1810), who called it the Ile de France. It was taken by the British in 1810. It is administered as a Crown Colony, the Governor being aided by Councils which are partly representative.

The government of Mauritius has also under its control various islands in the Indian Ocean, of which the chief are the **Rodrigues**, due east of Mauritius, the **Trois Freres** or **Eagle Islands**, the **St. Brendon** or **Cargados Islands**, and the **Chagos Islands**. The largest of the Chagos group is **Diego Garcia**, an important coaling station, possessing a good harbour and situated on the line from the Red Sea to Australia.

SEYCHELLES.

The **Seychelles** and its dependencies consist of eighty-nine islands and islets, with an area of nearly 150 square miles. They were assigned to Great Britain in the Peace of 1814. The largest of the group is **Mahé**, on which is **Port Victoria**, the capital, with a fine harbour, another coaling station. Other

islands of the main group are **Praslin, Silhouette, and La Digue**. Among the dependent islands may be mentioned the **Amirantes, Alphonse Island, St. François, St. Pierre, and Assumption Island**.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AMERICA.

DOMINION OF CANADA.

The **Dominion of Canada** embraces the whole of the northern portion of North America, with the exception of **Alaska** and **Newfoundland** with its dependent territory of **Labrador**.

The extent, the physical characteristics, and the enormous resources of so vast a region can be but briefly touched on in this sketch of the British possessions, but its vastness can best be realised by the fact that the area, excluding that of the magnificent lake system, is nearly as large as that of the whole of Europe, or about thirty times that of the United Kingdom. The most striking characteristics of this huge country are the lofty **Rocky Mountains**, 1500 miles in length, rising in **Mount Brown** and **Hooker** to over 15,000 feet; the great plains and prairies; and lastly, the splendid **Lake and River** system. The great lakes of Canada, with the **St. Lawrence** and its tributaries, contain more than half of all the fresh water on the globe, and form, with the canals, an unrivalled system of inland water communication. In the north the climate is cold, but genial, temperate and healthy in the south, though the extremes of heat and cold are more severe than in Britain.

Canada is very rich in timber and in the production of all kinds of food, especially cereals; its mineral wealth in gold and other metals, as well as in coal, is enormous and only slightly developed; whilst the salmon, cod, and other fisheries are extremely valuable.

The population was estimated, in March 1910, at about $7\frac{1}{2}$ millions, of whom most live in the basin of the **St. Lawrence**, whilst in the province of **Quebec** there are over a million of French descent.

The territories which now constitute the Dominion of Canada came into British power at various times—some by conquest, some by settlement, some by cession.

Nova Scotia was discovered by John Cabot in 1497, and was partially colonised by the French in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Together with New Brunswick, it formed what the French called *Acadia*. This district was constantly the scene of conflict between French and English until as recently as 1744, though by that time it was recognised as British.

Farther north the French had taken possession of the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence as early as 1534, and had founded **Quebec** in the early part of the seventeenth century. For considerably over 100 years there was a more or less continuous struggle between France, England, and the natives for supremacy in the eastern part of North America, the history of which is romantically interesting and must be read in works on the subject.

In 1759 Quebec was captured by the British under Wolfe. This victory together with the naval successes during the Seven Years' War, by which Britain had secured the command of the sea, completely destroyed the power of France in North America. By the Treaty of Utrecht (1713) France had already ceded the district of **Acadia**, and had also resigned her rights to the Hudson's Bay Territory and Newfoundland. By the year when the Treaty of Paris was signed (1763) France had ceased to be a rival to Britain in North America, and the whole of the settled portion of the Continent passed to the British Flag. From that year the development of British North America has been continuous. During the war of separation, which ended with the establishment of the United States, many people wishing to remain under the Union Flag came over the frontier to settle. They were known as the United Empire loyalists. In 1841 responsible government was granted to Canada (then consisting of the provinces of **Ontario** and **Quebec**), while the provinces of **Nova Scotia** and **New Brunswick** obtained this privilege six years later.

In 1869 occurred the Red River rebellion, while two years before the four provinces above mentioned were united under the title of the Dominion of Canada. The existing **Dominion of Canada** is now a confederation of nine provinces, including the four above and **Manitoba** (1870) with **Keewatin**, **British Columbia** (1871), **Prince Edward Island** (1873),

Alberta and Saskatchewan (1905). The vast territory called the **North-West Territories**, bought in 1869 from the Hudson Bay Company, is subdivided into the districts of Ungava, Mackenzie, and Franklin. Yukon forms a separate territory. These four divisions are not as yet admitted to the Union as provinces. In 1880 an Order in Council was issued, consolidating into one vast dominion all the territory of British North America, excepting only Newfoundland and Labrador. Thus **British Arctic America** is politically a part of the Dominion, but though Britain, the United States, and Denmark all claim portions of the Polar regions, these inhospitable shores practically belong to the Esquimaux, who alone can dwell in such regions.

The Federation is governed by the King, who exercises his authority through the Governor-General and the Lieutenant-Governors of each province, who are appointed by the Governor-General. The Federal Parliament is modelled on that of the United Kingdom, consisting of an Upper House, nominated for life by the Governor-General and selected from the various provinces in proportion to the number of their inhabitants. There are eighty-seven members. The House of Commons is elected by suffrage, and consists of 221 members—one for every 22,000 inhabitants. In addition to this Federal Legislation, each province has a Provincial Parliament for local affairs, but the Central Government at **Ottawa**, the capital of the Dominion, is supreme.

QUEBEC

Is nearly four times as large as England and Wales, and embraces both shores of the lower valley of the St. Lawrence, and includes the islands in the St. Lawrence, viz., **The Isle of Orleans** and **Montreal Island**; **Alumette** and **Calumet** in the Ottawa River; **Anticosti** and the **Magdalen Islands** in the Gulf. It is level, fertile, and well cultivated, farming, timber-felling, and fishing being the chief occupations. It is well populated (1,500,000), the vast majority being of French descent, and Roman Catholic.

The capital is the picturesque and strongly fortified town of **Quebec**, situated on the St. Lawrence, and formerly capital of what was until 1867 called Canada. **Montreal**, on an island

in the St. Lawrence, is the largest town in the Dominion, and is the chief commercial town of the whole of Canada. It is the eastern terminus of the Canadian Pacific Railway. **Three Rivers, St. Henri, Hull, St. John's, and Sherbrooke** are other important towns.

ONTARIO

Lies to the south-west of Quebec, and is nearly surrounded on its other sides by the lakes. It is four times the size of England, being smaller than Quebec. It is the most populous and most wealthy province of the Dominion (2,500,000), and though originally almost covered with huge forests, whence it still obtains a large portion of its wealth, it has wonderfully developed its agricultural and mineral resources, and is rapidly becoming an important manufacturing country.

Ottawa, the Federal Capital, is on the river of the same name, but the largest city and the provincial capital is **Toronto**, with great shipping interests and large trade, on the **Lake of Ontario**. Other important towns are—**Hamilton, London, Guelph, Port Arthur, Petrolea, and Kingston**.

NEW BRUNSWICK

Is situated south of Quebec, between it and Nova Scotia. It is nearly as large as Scotland, with a population of nearly half a million. Its chief wealth lies in its timber and minerals, whilst its fisheries are also very valuable. Ship-building is an important industry, while the land near the rivers is very fertile.

The Province was settled by the French in 1642, and formed part of the district of Acadia till the cession to Britain in 1713, from which time to 1784 it formed part of **Nova Scotia**. It was made a separate province in that year, and joined the Dominion in 1867. **Fredericton**, the capital, is 80 miles up the river St. John, at the mouth of which is the important commercial town of **St. John**.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND

Lies in the south of the great **Gulf of St. Lawrence**, off the shores of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. It is the smallest

Canadian province, being about the size of the county of Norfolk. Agriculture and the fisheries are the principal industries. **Charlottetown** is its capital and its seaport, with a good trade. Population 115,000. The island was taken from the French in 1758, and its possession formally agreed on by the Peace of 1763. It joined the Dominion in 1873.

NOVA SCOTIA

Is a long narrow peninsula on the south-east of New Brunswick, and connected with it by the **Isthmus of Chignecto**. Its area, with Cape Breton Island, is about two-thirds that of Scotland, with a population of half a million. The Province possesses valuable coal and other mines, whilst its fisheries are the richest in the Dominion. The numerous inlets form magnificent natural harbours. It was originally a French settlement, under the name of Acadia, and after many vicissitudes was ceded to Britain in 1713. It joined the Dominion in 1867. **Halifax**, the capital, has a magnificent harbour, and is the headquarters of the British naval and military forces in the North Atlantic Ocean. It is a fortified coaling station as well.

CAPE BRETON ISLAND

Forms the north-eastern portion of Nova Scotia, and is separated from it by the **Gut of Canso**. Its chief town is **Sydney**, where there are very valuable coal mines, many of them stretching under the Atlantic. **Louisbourg**, once an important fortress, is now a heap of ruins (*see* p. 35). The island was taken in 1758, and finally ceded to Britain by the Treaty of Paris in 1763.

MANITOBA

Is a province in the centre of Canada, larger than Great Britain, with a population of 200,000. Its soil is remarkably fertile, yielding the very best wheat and other crops in large quantities. Cattle are also bred in great numbers, and there is a quantity of coal to be developed. It was formerly a part of the vast **Rupert's Land**, under the Hudson Bay Company, and later was called the **Red River Settlement**. In 1870 a rebellion of various elements of disorder against the Imperial rule under

Riel, was suppressed, and the country made into a separate province of the Dominion. **Winnipeg**, the capital, is a rapidly increasing town, situated at the junction of the Red River and Assiniboine. It is becoming a very important railway centre, and is also a great centre of steam navigation. **Portage la Prairie** and **Brandon** are the other chief towns.

KEEWATIN

Is an enormous tract of country stretching to the north-east of Manitoba as far as Hudson Bay. It has an area of over 300,000 square miles, parts of which are very fertile, but its chief value lies in its being the seaboard of the grain-producing **Manitoba**. It was cut out of the **North-West Territory** and placed under the Government of Manitoba in 1876 as a separate district. The chief town is **Port Nelson**, at the mouth of the Nelson River, which is rapidly becoming a most important grain port, whence, during the summer, quantities of corn are shipped to Britain.

BRITISH COLUMBIA

Is the westernmost province of the Dominion, and, though four times the size of Great Britain, contains a population of only 280,000. "Its wonderful coast-line, its unrivalled fisheries, its magnificent forests, its incalculable wealth in minerals of all kinds, its splendid position on the Pacific, all indicate for it a great future when the population increases."

There are numerous islands along its coast, of which **Vancouver Island** and **Queen Charlotte Island** are the principal.

The capital of the province, **Victoria**, is on a beautiful harbour on Vancouver Island, on which are also the coal-mining centre of **Nanaimo** and the port of **Esquimalt**. This port has a magnificent harbour and docks, and was till recently the headquarters of the British Navy in these waters. Now it is garrisoned by Canadian troops, and the Dominion Government has undertaken the cost of garrison both here and at Halifax. It is a fortified coaling station. On the mainland the chief towns are **Vancouver City**, the terminus of the Canadian Pacific Railway, connected by steamers with Hong-

Kong, Yokohama, etc., **New Westminster**, about 8 miles up the Fraser River, **Yale**, and **Lytton**. Much gold has been found in the Columbia basin, and **Rossland** is the centre of that mining district.

Vancouver Island was discovered in 1592, visited by Cook in 1778, and partly explored and named by Captain Vancouver in 1792. In 1849 it was made a separate Crown Colony, and in 1866 was united with British Columbia. In 1871 the united Colony joined the Dominion. The mainland province of British Columbia was formerly part of the Hudson Bay Company's lands, and was made a separate Crown Colony in 1858, absorbing the island as above in 1866.

ALBERTA

Lies to the east of British Columbia, and now comprises the territory formerly known under that name together with the western half of Athabasca. It is nearly five times as large as Great Britain. The southern portion is traversed by the Canadian Pacific Railway, and is very rich in pasture. It is called the Dairy of the West, but its coal and other mineral resources are very great as well. **Calgary and Edmonton** are the chief towns. The northern portion is still largely undeveloped. The valley of the **Peace River** is gradually being settled by wheat growers. **Dunvegan** is the chief town.

SASKATCHEWAN

Lies to the east of Alberta, separating it from Keewatin and Manitoba. It comprises now the territory formerly known under that name, the eastern half of Athabasca, and the former district of Assiniboia. It is about five times as big as Great Britain. The southern portion (Assiniboia) is crossed by the Canadian Pacific Railway, on which **Regina, Broadview, Indian Head, and Medicine Hat** are important centres. The most fertile part is the **Qu'Appelle** valley. The centre portion, which now gives its name to the province, takes its name from its great river. Branch lines of the Canadian Pacific Railway traverse it, the most important places being **Prince Albert and Battleford**. The northern portion is much undeveloped except in the valley of the **Churchill River**.

YUKON

Is a district four times as big as England, and is in the extreme north-west. Notable discoveries of gold were made in 1897 on the tributaries of the **Klondike River**, almost within the Arctic circle. **Dawson City** is the chief mining centre.

THE NORTH-WEST TERRITORIES

Comprise the rest of British North America, divided into the **Mackenzie**, **Ungava**, and **Franklin** districts. The area of these territories is over 1,000,000 square miles.

The **Mackenzie** district includes the lower basin of the river of that name, as well as the **Great Bear** and **Great Slave Lakes**. It is a hunting and trapping neighbourhood, the trade being in valuable furs.

The **Ungava** district lies on the east of Hudson Bay, between it and Labrador.

The **Franklin** district comprises the remaining northern portion of the mainland and the Arctic Archipelago.

NEWFOUNDLAND

Is an island somewhat larger than Ireland, situated at the entrance of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. There is a population of 200,000, chiefly occupied in the fisheries and other coast industries, most of the interior being but thinly inhabited. Large quantities of dried cod, seal skins, and fish oil are exported, while clothing materials and flour are imported. There is also much undeveloped wealth in coal, copper, and other minerals in the country.

Visited by Cabot in 1497, the country was first settled in 1623 by the French, and ceded to Britain in 1713. It possesses representative and responsible government, with a House of Assembly elected every four years by manhood suffrage. The capital, **St. Johns**, is situated on a very fine harbour on the peninsula of Avalon. **Harbour Grace** and **Placentia** are the only other towns of any size.

The adjoining coast lands of **Labrador**, off which are also valuable cod and other fisheries, form a dependency of Newfoundland. There are only a few permanent dwellers on this coast-line, mostly at **Nain** and **Hopedale**.

Newfoundland and **Labrador** form a colony independent of the Dominion of Canada.

BRITISH GUIANA

Extends along the north-east coast of South America from the mouth of the **Orinoco** to the **Corentyn River**, a distance of 300 miles. It includes the settlements of **Demerara**, **Essequibo**, and **Berbice**, named from the three rivers. Inland the Colony stretches about 400 miles, and has an area rather larger than that of Great Britain, but it is only the neighbourhood of the coast that is opened up. Rich alluvial low-lying lands extend inland about 70 miles, and here large quantities of sugar are raised. Population nearly 300,000, of whom only 1500 are Europeans, the rest being chiefly East Indian Coolies and Chinese. **Georgetown** (Demerara) is the capital, a well-built city and port, while **New Amsterdam** is the only other town of any size.

Guiana was discovered by Columbus in 1498 and visited by Spanish adventurers in succeeding years, but first settled by the Dutch in 1627. The French, Dutch, and British held various portions of the coast-line at different intervals, and the present British territory was taken in 1803, the cession being confirmed by the Treaty of 1814. Recently disputes with Venezuela and Brazil as to the boundaries of the Colony were settled by arbitration, when it was decided that the Orinoco should be open to the British, and that most of the disputed area, including the goldfields, should remain British. The Governor is appointed by the Crown, aided by an Executive Council; legislation is conducted by a Court of Policy, partly representative but not responsible.

BRITISH HONDURAS

Is a colony rather bigger than Yorkshire, situated on the **Caribbean Sea** between the states of **Yucatan** and **Guatemala**. The population of over 40,000 is very mixed, with but few Europeans. The products are chiefly log-wood, very fine and hard mahogany, india-rubber, and other trees. The district was first settled by wood-cutters from Jamaica, and was treated as a dependency of that island, but was much subject to Spanish attacks till 1798, when a large Spanish Fleet was

repulsed off Belize. In 1884 the district became a separate Crown Colony. It is administered by a Governor, an Executive, and a Legislative Council, all of whom are appointed by the Crown. The capital is **Belize**, at the mouth of the river of the same name, while **Corosal** and **Orange Walk** are small towns.

THE BERMUDAS

Are an isolated group of over 300 small coralline islands situated 600 miles east of Cape Hatteras. Only twenty of the islands are inhabited, their permanent population being about 17,000. The islands are very healthy, with lovely scenery, and produce arrowroot, fruits, vegetables, and cedar in abundance. They are a favourite resort of Americans in winter, but their geographical position and excellent harbours make them of great strategic use to Britain. There is a Royal dockyard and a large naval establishment well situated and fortified, as well as a coaling station, thus rendering these islands very valuable to our Navy, especially in the winter season. The chief town is **Hamilton**, the four principal islands being **Bermuda**, **Ireland**, **St. George**, and **Somerset**.

In addition to the Governor, the Executive and Legislative Council, there is an elected House of Assembly of thirty-six members.

Discovered by the Spaniards in 1515, they were settled by the English under Sir George Somers in 1609, and have been continuously in British hands since that date.

THE WEST INDIES

Is the general title given to the large and beautiful archipelago which lies between the two Americas. Of these islands Cuba (44,000 square miles) is now an independent state, though the direct armed interposition of the United States in the war against Spain has brought the island into close association with the United States Government. The island had been continuously in the possession of Spain from its discovery in 1492 until 1898. Porto Rico (3550 square miles) belongs to the United States; Guadeloupe (360 square miles), Martinique and some smaller ones to France; Curaçoa, Oruba, and Bonaire to Holland; Santa Cruz, St. Thomas, and St. John to Denmark. The rest, of a total area of 14,000 square miles, belong to Britain,

though many of them have passed through French hands. In many of the islands sugar and coffee of excellent quality is grown, but the prosperity of the West Indies is dwindling owing to the difficulty of producing sugar to compete in price with the bounty supported beet sugar of Europe. The cultivation of cocoa is gradually becoming very profitable.

JAMAICA

Is the largest of the British islands in the West Indies, being almost as big as Yorkshire, but the population is only 600,000, of whom not more than 3 per cent. are whites. It is a beautiful and fertile island, producing excellent rum as well as sugar, coffee, maize, and corn. The capital is **Kingston**, whose harbour, called **Port Royal**, is the finest of the many fine harbours in the West Indies. It is a fortified coaling station. **Spanish Town**, **Montego Bay**, and **Falmouth** are also important towns.

The Government is administered by a Governor, a Legislative Assembly, partly elected, partly nominated, and a Council.

Jamaica was discovered by Columbus, and settled by the Spaniards in 1509. It was taken by the English in 1655, almost ruined by the emancipation of the slaves in 1833, and is now much harassed by the foreign bounty system. In 1865 there was a serious revolt, which was suppressed. The present form of government dates from 1884.

The Government of Jamaica also administers **Turks Islands** and **Caicos Islands**, two small groups to the north-east of Jamaica, on the other side of Cuba. The most important of these groups are **Grand Turk** and **Grand Caicos**, in which salt-making and fishing for sponges are carried on.

The **Cayman Islands**, with the **Morant Cays** and **Pedro Cays**, are also administered from Jamaica.

THE BAHAMAS

Are a group of about twenty inhabited islands, and many small islands and rocks to the north of Cuba. Their total area is less than that of Yorkshire, and there is a population of about 61,000. The most important islands of the group are **New Providence**, on which is **Nassau**, the capital of the group, **San Salvador**, **Abaco**, **Grand Bahama**, **Long Island**,

Mayaguana, Great Inagua, Eleuthera. The islands are very fertile, and produce pine-apples and other fruits, while there is a great trade done in sponges and pearls.

San Salvador (called also Watling Island) was the first land sighted by Columbus in 1492. The Spanish rule over the islands was very cruel, the natives being shipped away as slaves, and the islands, thus denuded of their inhabitants, became the resort of pirates. They became British in 1783 at the Treaty of Versailles.

There is a Governor and Executive similar to the administration in Jamaica.

THE LEEWARD ISLANDS

Form a westward section of the Lesser Antilles, and comprise a large number of small islands, some of which belong to France, Holland, and Denmark. The British Colony is a federation of five presidencies, each being independent for local matters, but joined together under a Governor and a Legislative Council for the whole Colony. The capital and seat of Government is **St. John's**, on **Antigua**. The total area of the British Colony is 704 square miles, with a very mixed population of nearly 150,000. The islands are fertile, and produce the usual West Indian fruits. The history of many of these islands is interesting and eventful, Spain, France, and England having all had a share in it.

(1.) **Antigua** (170 square miles) is the most populous of these islands, and, in addition to **St. John's**, possesses a good naval station called **English Harbour**. The islands of **Barbuda** and **Redonda** form part of this presidency.

(2.) **Dominica** (291 square miles) is the largest of the Leeward Islands, and lies between the two French islands of **Guadeloupe** and **Martinique**. **Roseau**, its capital (also called **Charlotte Town**), and **St. Joseph** are its chief places.

(3.) The three islands of **St. Christopher (St. Kitts)**, **Nevis**, and **Anguilla** form a joint presidency. **Basseterre** is beautifully situated on the fertile **St. Kitts**, and the mountain island of **Nevis** possesses **Charlestown**. **Anguilla** exports quantities of salt

(4.) **Montserrat** is famous for its lime fruit, and is a prosperous though small island. Its capital is **Plymouth**.

(5.) The **Virgin Islands** are a group on the east of Porto

Rico, of which Great Britain possesses about thirty. Only three of the British islands are inhabited, namely, **Tortola**, **Anegada**, and **Virgin Gorda**. The capital is **Roadtown**, on **Tortola**.

THE WINDWARD ISLANDS

Form a confederation on similar lines to that of the Leeward Islands. Their history, too, especially that of **St. Lucia**, has been most interesting and eventful, while **St. Vincent** has been taken and retaken many times by French and British. Most of the present British possessions in these two groups of islands were finally ceded to Great Britain at the conclusion of the Napoleonic wars.

The largest of the Windward group is **Grenada**, on which is **St. George**, the capital of the islands and seat of Government. It has an excellent bay, with a harbour out of the direct line of the hurricanes, which do so much damage in these islands.

Immediately to the north of **Grenada** lies a group of small islands called the **Grenadines**, some of which are administered by **Grenada** and some by **St. Vincent**. The chief island is **Carriacou**.

St. Vincent lies farther north again, and is almost as large as Grenada. The capital is **Kingstown**, on the south-west coast.

St. Lucia is the most northerly of the Windward Islands, and is exceptionally beautiful and fertile. Its chief possession is, however, a magnificent harbour, on which is the town of **Castries**. It is a fortified coaling station, and our second important naval base in the West Indies.

BARBADOS

Lies 100 miles to the east of **St. Vincent**, and is a separate Crown Colony. Though not more than 166 square miles in area, this island has a population of nearly 200,000, and is, after Jamaica, the most important British West Indian possession. It is the headquarters of the British military forces in these regions. **Bridgetown** is the capital.

The island is administered by a Governor, aided by an Executive and Legislative Council, and there is also a House of Assembly elected annually.

The island was settled by the English in 1625, and has never changed hands, being always prosperous save for occasional hurricanes, and a serious negro rising in 1818.

Education is very ably organised in Barbados, there being excellent schools and a University affiliated to Durham.

TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO.

Trinidad is a square-shaped island about the size of Hampshire, off the north-east shore of Venezuela, with a population of nearly 300,000. It is very fertile, producing large quantities of sugar, cocoa, cocoa-nuts, and fibre. But a peculiar and very valuable source of wealth is its asphalt, the product of the Pitch Lake, of which 100,000 tons are exported annually. The chief town is the seaport, **Port of Spain**, which is a fortified coaling station, and possesses one of the finest harbours in the West Indies. It has a very large trade, being a much frequented port of call for vessels of all kinds. **San Fernando** has also a fine harbour.

The administration is carried on by a Governor and Councils, all the members being nominated by the Crown.

Trinidad was discovered by Columbus in 1498, and remained in Spanish possession till 1797, when it capitulated to Sir Ralph Abercrombie. Though nominally Spanish until that year, the island was largely settled by the French at the end of the seventeenth century. It was formally ceded to Britain by the Peace of Amiens, 1802.

Tobago, formerly administered as one of the Windward Islands, has been attached to Trinidad since 1889. It lies immediately to the north of Trinidad, and is about the size of Rutlandshire. Its population is about 20,000.

AUSTRALASIA.

Is the general name given to the various British colonies and possessions in the Pacific. Each is dealt with separately under its own title, but taking these islands together it must be remembered that the extent of the land surface under British control amounts to twenty-six times the size of Great Britain

and Ireland, while Australia alone has an area of nearly 3,000,000 square miles.

Torres (1606), Tasman (1642), Dampier (1699), and Captain Cook (1770) all had their share in discovering the various islands of Australasia. Their gradual development has been due to the creation of penal settlements, and to the immigration of explorers and settlers, attracted thither by the prospect of finding rich pastures, arable land, and gold. The natives are of many different races, some very savage, others easily taught to till the ground and work; in some of the islands they no longer exist (**Tasmania**), while in others they live undisturbed by whites, except perhaps by a visit from a trading ship (**Solomons**).

The climate, productions, etc., vary according to the situation, as the various islands constituting **Australasia** are scattered over thousands of miles.

THE COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA,

Consisting of the six original states of **New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia**, and **Tasmania**, was proclaimed at Sydney 1st January 1901.

Legislative power is vested in a Federal Parliament, consisting of the King, who is represented by a Governor-General, a Senate, and a House of Representatives. The Executive power, vested in the King, is exercised by the Governor-General, assisted by an Executive Council of responsible Ministers of State.

QUEENSLAND

Is a vast territory, five and a half times as large as the United Kingdom, occupying all the north-eastern portion of Australia. The coast line is indented by many bays, forming splendid natural harbours, while the interior is intersected by fine rivers. Gold- and tin-mining, agriculture and sheep-rearing, are the principal industries.

Until 1859 this State was administered by New South Wales, but in that year it was made a separate colony, and at the same time responsible government was conferred. The power of making laws and imposing taxes is vested in two

Houses, called the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly, with a Governor appointed by the Crown.

Brisbane, the capital, on the Brisbane river, is 25 miles up the river, and does a large trade. It is a fortified coaling station. The other important towns are **Ipswich**, **Rockhampton**, **Maryborough**, **Charters Town**, and **Townsville**.

Moreton Bay, **Port Musgrave**, and **Henry Bay** are splendid harbours, while scattered off the coast are hundreds of islands, of which **Stradbroke**, **Moreton**, **Great Sandy**, **Prince of Wales**, the **Wellesley Islands**, and **Thursday Island** are the chief. The last-named is a coaling station. **Murray Island**, 100 miles north-east of Cape York, is also part of Queensland.

NEW SOUTH WALES

Joins Queensland on the south, and is about ten times the size of Ireland, containing more than 310,000 square miles. It is mainly pastoral, its chief wealth consisting of enormous flocks of sheep and herds of cattle. Gold, coal, and other minerals are found in large quantities, while its commerce ranks next to that of India and Canada. Founded originally as a penal settlement in 1788, it has become one of the most enlightened colonies of the Empire, owing partly to the numbers of immigrants seeking pasture or in search of gold. There is now a population of one and a half millions. Constitutional government was granted in 1855. The climate is warm and very dry, the rainfall, though ample on the coast, being scanty on the plains inland. In summer many of the rivers become almost entirely dry, the want of water often causing much distress.

Sydney, the capital, situated on the magnificent harbour of **Port Jackson**, is, next to Melbourne, the most important town in Australia. The value of its trade approaches that of the biggest ports in Great Britain. It has a population of over half a million. Its approaches are strongly fortified, while the harbour is unrivalled in its convenience for shipping. It is one of our most important coaling stations, and is the headquarters of the Australian Squadron. Other important towns are **Newcastle**, **Wollongong**, both great coal ports, **Ballina**, a timber port, **Eden**, **Bathurst**, **Tamworth**, **Broken Hill**, **Bourke**, **Paramatta**, and **Albury**. Two islands are administered from New South Wales—**Norfolk Island** and **Lord**

Howe Island. Norfolk Island is about midway between New Zealand and New Caledonia, being 1000 miles north-east of Sydney. It is 15 square miles in area, was discovered in 1774 by Captain Cook, and, after being used as a penal settlement during the first half of the last century, was settled by some of the inhabitants of Pitcairn Island (1854), while lately the remainder have been moved also. Norfolk Island is most interesting as the headquarters of the Melanesian Mission, Melanesia comprising all the islands between New Guinea, New Caledonia, Fiji and West Australia. Lord Howe Island is smaller and nearer Australia. It is chiefly visited by whaling ships, as is also Norfolk Island.

VICTORIA

Is the smallest, but most thickly populated, of the Australian States—thirteen persons to the square mile. It occupies the south-eastern corner of the continent, its area being not quite as large as that of Great Britain. It was formerly a portion of New South Wales, but responsible self-government was conferred in 1855. Very rich in gold, of which over £200,000,000 have been mined, its chief wealth now lies in wool and excellent wheat as well as the precious metal. Its growth in population during the last fifty years has been astounding. **Melbourne**, the capital, situated at the head of the enormous natural harbour of **Port Phillip Bay**, has a population of over half a million, which is nearly half that of the whole State, whereas in 1835 there was only a handful of whites. The town is beautifully situated and well built, and is a strongly fortified coaling station, as well as the most important commercial centre of the Southern Hemisphere. Other important towns are **Ballarat**, **Bendigo**, **Geelong**, **Castlemaine**, and **Portland**.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

Is the second largest State, and, though called **South**, occupies all the central section of the country up to the northern shores. This State had responsible self-government conferred on it in 1856. Its area is ten times that of Great Britain, with a population of under half a million, most of whom are settled in the southern portion of the State. It is the driest part of

Australia; all the central portion and much of the northern is desert, but the south possesses rich agricultural land, on which wheat is grown in large quantities. Wool is the chief source of wealth, and there are also rich deposits of copper and other minerals. The capital, **Adelaide**, is a noble city, situated inland on the **Torrens Lake**, seven miles from **Port Adelaide**, which is on a fine natural harbour, and is a coaling station. With these exceptions the other towns are small, the chief being **Port Augusta** and **Port Pirie**, **Gawler**, and **Burra**. In the north is the splendid harbour of **Port Darwin**, on which is **Palmerston**, the chief city of the Northern Territory.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA

Is the largest but least populated Colony of Australia, being eleven times the size of Great Britain, but possessing only 280,000 inhabitants, who for the most part have settled along the coast-line. Most of the interior is still unexplored, though recent gold discoveries are helping to develop the country away from the coast. Gold, wool, timber, pearl and other shells form the principal sources of wealth. The Colony is very deficient in rivers, and the rainfall is small and irregular. The coast-line, though 3000 miles in length, has few good harbours, of which **King George's Sound** and **Shark's Bay** are the best. **Albany**, situated on the former, is the principal port, and is a coaling station. **Perth**, the capital, is up the Swan River, 12 miles from its port, **Fremantle**. The other chief towns are **Wyndham** and **Derby**, on the coast; while inland, **Northampton**, **Coolgardie**, and **Kalgoorlie** are rising mining centres.

A constitutional government on similar lines to those on the other Australian States was granted in 1890.

There are many small islands off the coast, the only important ones being **Dirk Hartog** and **Rottneest**.

TASMANIA,

Formerly called Van Dieman's Land, is an island more than half as large as England, separated from the south-east coast of Australia by Bass Straits, a channel 80 to 150 miles in breadth. It is mountainous, well watered, has a fine climate,

and possesses many fine harbours. It produces large quantities of tin, grain, and fruit; gold, silver, and coal are also worked. Its forests are also very valuable. Tasmania has a population of about 186,000.

Discovered in 1642 by Tasman, and partly explored by Captain Cook, it was not made use of till 1803, when a penal settlement was founded. Transportation of criminals was abolished in 1853. Having been separated from New South Wales in 1825, the State was granted constitutional government in 1856, and is now administered by a Governor, appointed by the Crown, and a Cabinet of responsible ministers. A Legislative Council and House of Assembly constitute its Parliament. The chief town is **Hobart** (35,000), the capital, on the river **Derwent**, which forms one of the finest natural harbours in the Southern Hemisphere; it is strongly fortified, is a coaling station, and is the summer quarters of the Australian Squadron. **Launceston**, on the Tamar, also fortified, is the only other large town, and is of more commercial importance than Hobart, owing to its position as regards the ports of Australia. Other towns are **Beaconsfield**, **Ringarooma**, and **Devonport**.

There are fifty-five islands belonging to Tasmania scattered at varying distances from the coast, of which the principal are **Flinders** and **Cape Barren Island** in the **Furneaux Group**, **King Island**, **Hunters Island**, the **Bruce Islands**, **Schouten Island**, and **Maria Island**.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ZEALAND

Consists of a group of islands situated about 1200 miles south-east of Australia. The group is 1000 miles long and 180 miles across the broadest part, with a coast-line of 3000 miles. The two most important islands are known as **North Island** and **South Island**, and are together more than twice the size of England. These two islands are mountainous, well watered, and have an equable temperate climate. They produce large quantities of sheep, cattle, corn, as well as valuable minerals, doing a large trade in wool, frozen meat, and hides. Chief towns are **Wellington**, on the fine harbour of **Port Nicholson**, and **Auckland** in North Island, **Christchurch** and **Dunedin** in South Island. The first three are fortified coaling

stations. There is a population of over 900,000, of whom about 40,000 are Maories and 20,000 non-British.

New Zealand was discovered by Tasman in 1640, and visited by Captain Cook in 1769. Missionaries made a start in 1814, and in 1838 settlements were established. Wars with the natives occurred from time to time, but their power was finally broken in 1881.

The Legislative power is vested in the Governor, representing the King, and a General Assembly consisting of two Chambers. The members of both Chambers are paid; there is universal suffrage for adults of both sexes, and the Maories have votes in their own districts. Education is free and compulsory.

The other islands forming part of the Colony, and governed from **Wellington**, are **Stewart Island**, close to the South Island, the **Auckland Islands** (uninhabited), 200 miles farther south, **Campbell Island**, **Macquarie Island**, the **Antipodes Islets**, the **Bounty Islets**, the **Chatham Islands**, 556 miles east, and the **Kermadec Islands**. In June 1901 the **Cook** and other **South Pacific Islands** were annexed to New Zealand. Together these islands amount to about 280 square miles. The most important are **Rarotonga** and the rest of the Cook Islands, the **Savage Islands**, **Tongareva**, **Manahiki**, and **Pukapuka**.

NEW GUINEA

Is now politically regarded as a dependency of the Commonwealth of Australia, and is officially known as the **Territory of Papua**. It lies due north of Australia, and is shared by the British, Germans, and Dutch. The British portion comprises the south-eastern part of the island, with an area of about 90,000 square miles, or rather more than one-third of the whole. A Protectorate was proclaimed over it in 1884, and in 1887 it was annexed as a Crown Colony. The trade is small, the natives not being inclined to lead a settled life. The capital is **Port Moresby**, where the Lieutenant-Governor resides. The Federal Government took over the control of this dependency in 1901.

The islands of **D'Entrecasteaux** and **Louisiade** group are administered as a part of British New Guinea.

THE FIJI ISLANDS

Are a numerous (255) group scattered over a large ocean area, about 1250 miles north of Auckland and 5000 miles south-west of America. The most important islands are **Viti Levu**, **Vanua Levu**, **Ovalau**. The area of the inhabited islands (eighty) is 8000 square miles. The geographical position of the group, the fine harbours of the islands, and the resourceful character of their inhabitants render the group of great value. They were annexed in 1874 by the wish of the various chiefs, and now form a Crown Colony under a Governor, assisted by a Council, who also acts as His Majesty's High Commissioner for the Western Pacific. **Suva** and **Levuka** are the chief centres, both with good harbours, with a coaling station at the former.

Rotumah, an island 400 miles north-west of Levuka, is administered as a part of the Fiji Colony.

OCEANIA.

The British possessions in Oceania include many groups of islands scattered over the Pacific. Some of these are treated in the sections devoted to New South Wales and New Zealand. The following summary gives details of those islands which are unattached.

THE SOLOMON ISLANDS

Are a group of numerous islands about 500 miles to the east of New Guinea. The British Protectorate extends over all the group with the exception of Bougainville and Buka, which are under German protection (1899). The islanders are in demand as labourers in Australia and New Guinea. The islands were discovered in 1568, but never settled by Europeans. They are visited by traders and the missionaries. The seat of government is **Tulagi**.

PITCAIRN ISLAND,

Situated 4000 miles from the South American coast, was settled by the mutineers from the ship *Bounty* in 1790, some of whose descendants have been removed to Norfolk Island.

THE SANTA CRUZ

Is a small group which, with the **Solomons** and the **New Hebrides**, forms a link in a long chain of volcanic mountainous islands stretching many hundred miles. (There is a Santa Cruz island, the largest of the Virgin group in the West Indies, belonging to Denmark.)

THE NEW HEBRIDES,

Divided into **Northern** and **Southern** groups, continue the chain towards New Caledonia. They are under joint British and French control, as are also **Banks Islands** and **Torres Islands**, while New Caledonia and the Loyalty Islands are French possessions.

THE GILBERT ISLANDS

Lie to the north-east of the Solomons. There are sixteen small islands, very densely populated, of which the chief is **Taputeonea**. They were annexed in 1892.

THE ELLICE ISLANDS

Lie midway between the Gilbert and Fiji Islands. Like the former they are of coral formation, and are only sparsely inhabited.

THE TONGA OR FRIENDLY ISLANDS

Are in the Southern Pacific, and came into British possession under an agreement with Germany, by which Britain renounced all her rights in the Samoan Islands (*see* also Solomon Islands), 1899. The seat of government is at **Tongatabu**.

There are other islands, some isolated, others in groups scattered over these seas, nearly all of which are either annexed to Great Britain or under British protection. They are mostly of coral formation and are seldom visited. The chief are the **Phoenix, Union, Wilson** groups, and the separate islands called **Malden, Starbuck, Christmas, Fanning, and Washington**. Most of these have been placed under protection of the Imperial Government by the wish of the natives, to prevent them falling into other hands, and, though not of much apparent use to Great Britain, might become of value as telegraph or naval stations. It must also be remembered that, being under British protection, they cannot be made of strategic value to a hostile Power.

Besides the above actual colonies, protectorates, etc., of Great Britain, there are large tracts of country in various parts of the globe in which British influence is predominant. **Afghanistan**, for instance, is under the rule of the Ameer of Kabul, but he receives a subsidy from the Indian Government on certain conditions, and the influence of British power is felt not only in Afghanistan itself, but by many of the mountainous tribes of the hill country, who consider themselves independent of the Ameer.

In the north of Africa again, **Egypt**, with its lately reconquered possessions on the upper waters of the Nile, though ruled by the Khedive under the suzerainty of Turkey, is under British control, and has been so since 1883, when France withdrew from her responsibilities after Arabi's rebellion.

There are also numerous islands dotted about the oceans nominally independent, but should any foreign Power show signs of annexing them for their own purposes, Britain would be forced, in self-defence, to aid the natives against such aggression.

*"Never was isle so little, never was sea so lone
But over the sand and the palm trees an English flag was flown."*

In concluding this sketch, we must again emphasise the fact that to the British Empire the maintenance of ocean communications is the primary condition of national existence, and upon the Navy, and the Navy alone, the fulfilment of this vital need must absolutely and always depend. We cannot defend the widely scattered dominions of the Sovereign, nor can we strike a single effective blow against an enemy unless

our Navy is supreme. On the other hand, if the Navy is able to maintain the supremacy of the seas, over-sea invasion of any of our dominions becomes impossible, and it only remains to provide adequate defence against small raids. The chief evil to be guarded against is a blind complacency, and ignorant self-satisfaction that all is well. Every nation which in the whole range of history has fallen at all, has fallen from its own belief that it was secure against all comers, its trust in inadequate means coupled with the acute vision of those who destroyed it. Britain holds no charter from Divine Providence which shall shield her from the consequences of ordinary cause and effect.

THE POLICY OF THE NAVY LEAGUE.

First.—To bring home to every man, woman, and child in the United Kingdom, that the bulk of the raw material used in our manufactures, and two-thirds of the food we eat, is transported across the sea. That the protection of commerce at sea is, therefore, vital to the people of this country, and especially to the working classes. That commerce can be guarded only by a supremely powerful navy, able to assert and to maintain the command of the sea.

Second.—To convince every tax-payer and every politician, that judicious expenditure upon the Navy is only the ordinary insurance which no sane person grudges in private affairs.

Third.—To enlist, on national grounds, the support of all classes in maintaining the Fleet at the requisite standard of strength, and to denounce any shortcomings in this respect.

Fourth.—To insist that the question of the Navy lies above and beyond all considerations of party politics, that a sudden development of naval strength is impossible, and that continuity of preparation is the essence of national security.

Fifth.—To advocate a national system of training in Seamanship, open to all classes of the population, with a view to augmenting the Naval Reserve of the country.

Sixth.—To advocate the laying down as a minimum of two capital ships to every one commenced by the next strongest Naval Power, and the maintenance of the proper complement of men, vessels of other classes, stores, and armaments.

Seventh.—Throughout the Empire to explain by lectures, by the dissemination of literature, by meetings, and by private propaganda, how naval supremacy has been alike the source of national prosperity and the sure safeguard of the liberties of the people.

Eighth.—By inculcating and strenuously upholding the principles of a great national policy based upon sea power, to bind together the scattered members of the Empire into one great whole.

NAVAL STRENGTH.

THE SAYINGS OF SEAMEN, STATESMEN, AND POLITICIANS.

It is "the Navy, whereon, under the good providence of God, the wealth, safety, and strength of the Kingdom chiefly depend."—ARTICLES OF WAR.

Sir FRANCIS DRAKE: "Prepare in England strongly, and most by sea. Stop him now and stop him ever."—1588.

Sir WALTER RALEIGH: "Whosoever commands the sea commands the trade, and whosoever commands the trade of the world commands the riches of the world, and consequently the world itself."

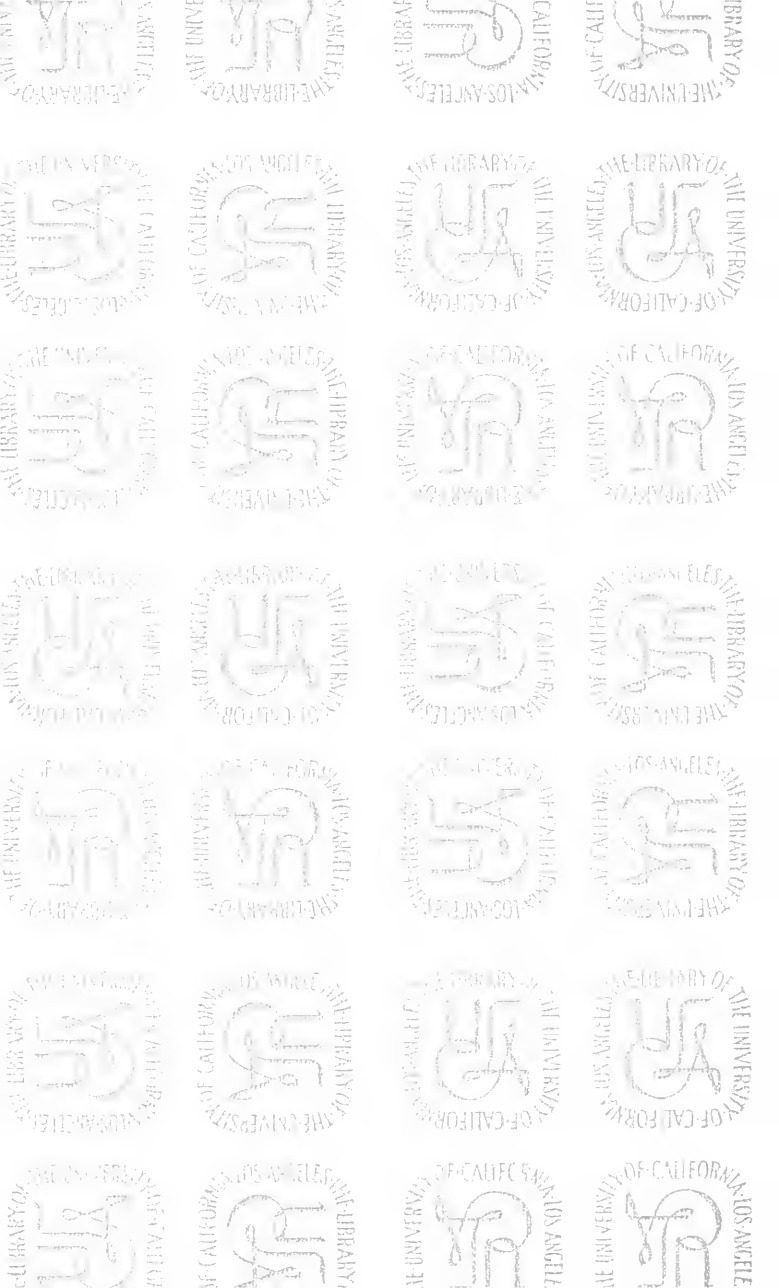
LORD BARHAM: "One ship in the beginning of a war is worth two in the latter part of it. True economy is to do and provide everything that is practicable during peace, while money is cheap, and we have leisure to attend to it. Nothing should be left to war but what properly belongs to it."—1785.

LORD NELSON: "There is no better negotiator in the councils of Europe than a fleet of English line-of-battle ships. If you are strong you may be practically certain that you will obtain your rights."

Admiral Sir GEOFFREY HORNBY (*First President of the Navy League*): "I fancy some people will say—'You are a British Admiral and not content to meet your enemy on equal terms!' Yes, I am that Admiral, and should never be content to meet any enemy in equal force, if by any possible efforts or provision I could meet him in superior force. And for this reason, that to do so would be to infringe the first principles of warfare."—June 5, 1888. 62178B

Admiral Sir JOHN FISHER: "We require fearless, vigorous, and progressive administration open to any reform, never resting on its oars—for to stop is to go back—and forecasting every eventuality."—May 2, 1903.

Admiral LORD CHARLES BERESFORD: "Where would be the hope of social reforms if our defences were not adequate to our needs?"—HOUSE OF COMMONS, March 14, 1910.



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